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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



JANUARY

1932

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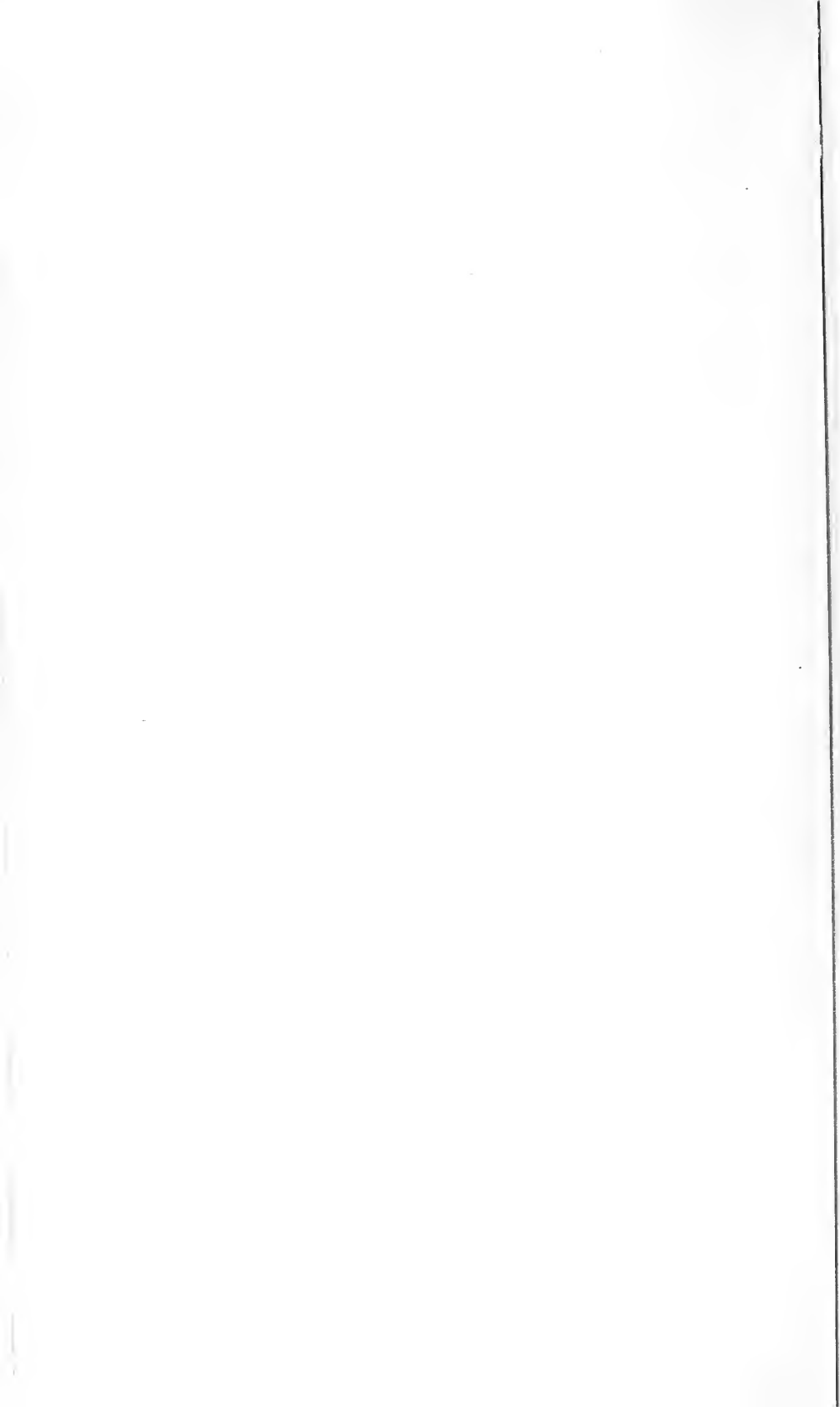
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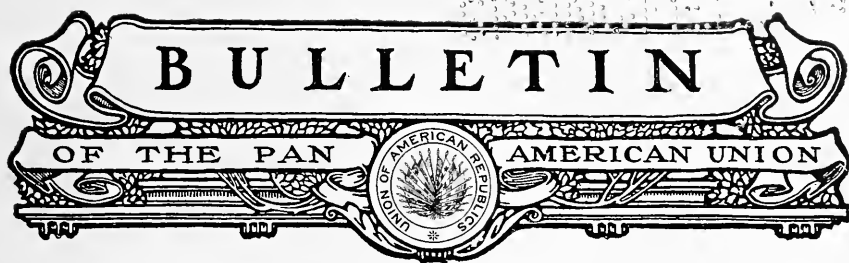
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## LIEUT. COL. LUIS M. SÁNCHEZ CERRO, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF PERU

ON DECEMBER 8, 1931, Lieut. Col. Luis M. Sánchez Cerro was inaugurated as Constitutional President of Peru for a term of five years. The ceremonies, which were cheered by an immense throng, took place before the new national Congress, which had been sworn in just before Lieut. Col. Sánchez Cerro took the oath of office.

The new Chief Executive of the Republic, the first to be elected by secret ballot and with obligatory voting, is still under 45 years of age. Educated at the Military School, Chorrillos, he has served for over 20 years in the army of his country both at home and abroad. In 1915 he was military attaché to the then Peruvian legation in Washington, and in 1922 he left Peru on a five years' mission to Europe, where he studied in military schools in France and Italy. He found this cosmopolitan experience of interest and benefit, both personally and professionally.

President Sánchez Cerro acted as head of the Provisional Government of his country for some months in 1930, but resigned the next year to become a candidate for the presidency in the election held October 11, 1931. The day after his inauguration, the President sent through the press a message of greeting to all the nations of America, in which he expressed his patriotic ideals as follows: "The government I desire for Peru is a government of order and peace, so that the country may develop its economic life along lines of mutual respect."

# WESTERN CUBA: LAND OF SUNSHINE AND FINE TOBACCO

By HUGH HAMMOND BENNETT

*United States Department of Agriculture*

WE were awakened not by the crowing of the cock but by the crowing of a whole cityful of lusty-lunged, raucous-throated roosters. There could scarcely have been less than 10,000 of them, and they crashed forth at the fifth hour from midnight with tumultuous din.

At this point my fellow scientist exclaimed, "*Caramba, hombre*, this explains Cuba's annual importation of 12,000,000 dozen eggs; the chickens are all roosters!"

"The evidence points that way," I replied. "However, there is nothing that can be done about it; so, what about a little *café y pan*? The hour is propitious; there can be no more sleeping amidst this riot of chicken dulcets. Besides, this is the day for Viñales Valley. Why not get going?"

Thus we were introduced to Pinar del Rio, the metropolis of the Province of Pinar del Rio, that is to say, of western Cuba.

The city has other claims to distinction beyond its multitudinous population of sleep-wrecking chanticleers. There is, for example, a population of forty or fifty thousand human beings. Moreover, all the houses have frontal rows of large columns; some have another row above, accompanied by a spacious balcony. The columns rise from a point about halfway between the outer and inner edges of the sidewalk, so that each street actually has four sidewalks. The part inside the line of columns, the cloistered part, is protected from those rains which fall not too slantingly. It was a happy thought of the builders of the city to provide this special feature. It may have been something of an oversight, however, that they should not have foreseen the actual working out of the plan; that, because of the inordinate fondness of the Pinar del Rians for social gatherings about tables conveniently placed along the full cloistered length of the street, it was to be entirely impossible for one to make any practical use of the protected part, no matter what the hour or the inclemency of the weather.

The endless lines of columns along Main Street are somewhat suggestive of Grecian architecture. But this architectural flavor does not in any respect make the city Grecian. Neither is it Roman, nor yet Parisian. It is Cuban, or to be more precise, western Cuban.

It has been made securely this by the Pinar del Rians themselves. The energetic citizens not only have been lavish with the building of the attractive columns, but they have gone about with their brushes and painted every house in town, including the columns, yellow, buff, or cream. Many have added an attractive streak of pale blue, lavender, or pale green at odd points of the structures, but these are lost in the composite effect of the dominant color scheme; and you have as the result a pale yellow city, in toto—a clean, pretty city that fairly glistens in the abounding sunshine and the amiable spirits of its inhabitants.

Of other interesting points of individuality pertaining to this most hospitable and alluring city, one especially should be mentioned. Look out the third or fourth story window of either of the two leading hotels, and a panorama consisting of acres and acres of tile roofing opens before you. It is not a case of an occasional tile-roofed structure; every building has its artistic cover of heavy, light-reddish tiles. The roofs do not, as a rule, have high ridgepoles. Many are rather flattish; and so, the whole blends into an undulating red plain of tiling.

#### PINAR DEL RIO NOT VISITED AS IT SHOULD BE

Not one foreign visitor of the tourist order was seen during the two delightful January weeks we spent in the western Province! A few Americans were seen about the vegetable districts and some of the sugar plantations; business had called them there.

Strange how the many who visit Cuba during the winter spend practically all their time in Habana. Some make hasty trips to neighboring sugar centrals or run over to see Bellamar Cave near Matanzas; many go out to the festive race track, the bathing beaches, and the yacht clubs. But these places for the most part are merely suburban Habana. Habana is a brilliant city, tremendously interesting; but it is not Cuba, at least, not all of Cuba.

After you have seen the Province of Pinar del Rio you are going to ask why so few visit the region. There it lies but a few miles beyond the Florida Keys, with its perfect winter climate, its good train service, a splendid hard-surfaced highway (the *Carretera Central*), with fairly good country roads, and scenery more entrancing than can be found over wide expanses of the United States or in some entire countries of Europe; yet few go there and no outsider knows much about the country.

Did you ever hear of the *magotes* of the Cordillera de Guaniguanico? Of course not. The country possessing this matchless range is too near home for its existence to be suspected. The Guaniguanicos comprise one of the most beautiful and wonderful areas of mountain landscape to be found on the Western Hemisphere. The majestic grandeur of the snow-covered Alaska Ranges and Andean peaks or

the matchless forested areas of the Carolina Mountains are not to be seen here, it is granted; but there is beauty of unforgettable impressiveness, none the less, and oddity of form and topographic uniqueness to be seen nowhere else in the world, although there is some resemblance to the limestone highlands of the central part of the Malay Peninsula seen along the railroad from Kulu Lumpur to Penang.

This almost within a stone's throw, and we have never heard of it!

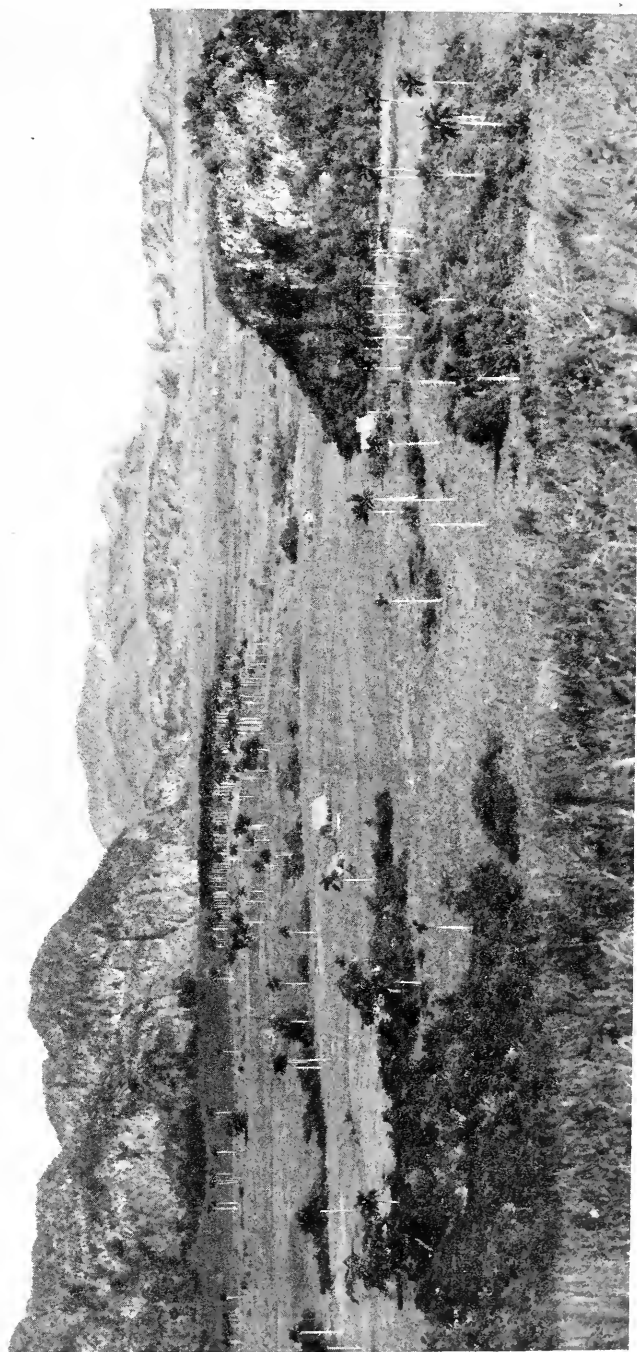
#### ON THE ROAD TO HOPE

A good road takes you from the city of Pinar del Rio, situated on the South Plain, up across the piedmont hills, down into beautiful Viñales Valley, thence out and over the northern piedmont to La Esperanza (Hope) on the North Plain. The round trip is easily made in a day, with considerable time for stops. The major feature of the trip will be Viñales Valley and its wonderful *magotes*, those strange truncated mountains, perhaps the most extraordinary orographic feature on the face of the earth.

Having recovered from the crowing of the cocks, we breakfasted and were off at 7 a. m. Our driver was a vivacious young fellow from Herradura, the village center of a western Cuba trucking district, where tomatoes, eggplants, and many other vegetables are grown for the New Year's dinner of your New York, Washington, and Chicago friends. The driver knew his Pinar del Rio, its plants, and the names of all the numerous villages and streams; but he had absolutely no sense of distance, as shown by his consistent overestimates of kilometers traveled. His figures invariably exceeded those posted along the roadside. The speedometer was out of order, so that settled that. Even so, the charge for transportation was not unreasonable, although we were paying not by the hour but by kilometerage.

We passed one tobacco farm after another in the gently rolling country about the city of Pinar del Rio. Within an hour's ride the topography became more uneven. After this the elevation increased rapidly toward the north, and we soon climbed up into the rolling pine lands of the piedmont section. From this point we looked back across a broad, low plain that fell away gradually to the shore of the sapphire Caribbean. Around us were great expanses of pine, the graceful *Cubensis* species, with long, lustrous needles of deepest green. There was but scant herbage of wire grass, and nothing else, save an occasional *paralejo* bush (*Byrsonima crassifolia*).

The piedmont country, to a considerable extent, is so thin as to soil, so infertile, that the Cubans have wisely passed it up as being hopeless for agricultural purposes. Along the rivers that wind through these hills, the situation is vastly different. Here the rich



VINALES VALLEY IN PINAR DEL RIO PROVINCE

A beautiful and unique landscape. The valley first appears as a gigantic sunken garden dotted with *magats*, or limestone monoliths of symmetrical shape and varying size.

alluvial plains are almost wholly occupied with tobacco fields. Attractive palm-thatched dwellings and tobacco-curing barns are scattered about, and royal palms lift their magnificent plumes regally above the bright green floors of the peaceful valleys. A little farther on we came to the inner edge of the piedmont. Here we had our first close-up view of the magnificent Guaniguanicos.

#### RHINE CASTLES MODELLED BY NATURE

The Cordillera de Guaniguanico comprises a chain of small and large block-like mountains, or *magotes*, that rise with nearly perpendicular walls from a flat plain to heights exceeding 1,300 feet. The plain lies below the belts of piedmont hills that inclose it on the north and south; but the higher *magotes* rise somewhat above the upland level of these adjacent hill lands.

Viñales Valley, into which we were now looking, revealed itself as a prodigious sunken garden. Wherever the eye ranged, great and small monoliths rose from the flat valley floor. These were of such symmetrical shape you could not at first conceive them as being anything but artificial structures. Some of the taller ones furthest away looked like purple etchings of Rhine castles; others with receding upper parts were duplicates of the ultra-modern New York skyscraper. Deep defiles between the detached masses of stone were suggestive of the street-canyons in down-town New York.

Although most of the *magotes* are flat-topped, they never resemble the buttes or mesas of the western United States. Perhaps this is due in part to the fact that the first view of them is not from the level of the plain upon which they stand, but from the high piedmont position, where the perspective is always strangely beautiful. Our western mesas often have a castellated appearance, but they never rise out of a sunken garden like gigantic monuments placed for decorative purposes, and you can not slip up on one of them except by night. You always see them first from long distances. Not so with these extraordinary mountains of Viñales Valley; you almost stand above them before seeing them.

In the distance the *magotes* shimmered in the soft, purple haze of January. Tobacco barns covered with palm leaves and houses with roofs of red tile or gray thatch gave just the right balance, the motif of human occupation, so essential to a picture of a joyous landscape. Here and there plowmen trod slowly behind ox-drawn, old-fashioned, home-made plows, turning up blood-red soil. In some fields tobacco was being harvested; in others it was being planted. The planting and harvesting of the same crop at the same time, as in the tobacco and cane fields of Cuba, is not a matter of every day occurrence in the regions with which we were familiar.

Now a column of smoke rose from a cabin that resembled a doll's house in the distance. Tinkling of cattle bells and other rural sounds were faintly caught from somewhere out of the picturesque valley. I think no human ever looked upon a more friendly landscape. It had every conceivable aspect of rural peacefulness. No doubt tragic events have stalked among the inhabitants of this tranquil valley, but no thought of anything but joy was suggested in the picture that we saw. And when we had descended the steep sides of the inclosing hills and come closer to the farmsteads and the people who lived upon them, the same spirit of contentment seemed to characterize everyone we met.

I wonder if it is not in just such places where genuine happiness is found. Even with low prices and little money, there is always sufficiency of food in the valleys of western Cuba. It seems inconceivable that these polite and wholesomely friendly people give much thought to the common worries of those who dwell in cities and congested rural districts. Probably these glittering valleys are really depression proof.

And so, along the way we traveled, leisurely and joyously. We had partaken of the cup of Viñales' cheer, its warm wine of azure January skies and the kindly greetings of the roadside. Two miles brought us to Viñales, a village of attractive tile-roofed houses and streets (as well as many of the houses) blood red with the prevailing clay of the locality. We had a good lunch at a tiny café, and then onward.

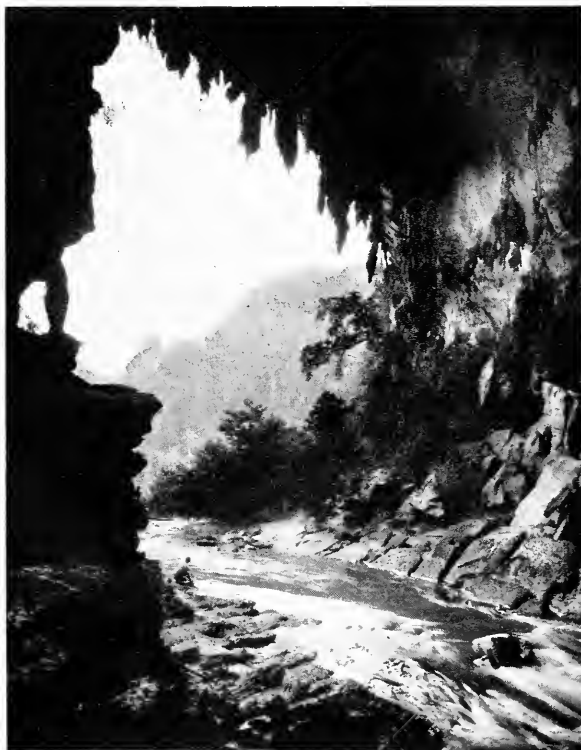
Another 2 miles brought us to the entrance of a magnificent pass between two beetling cliffs. Arrived at the foot of one of these, we were astounded to find the mountain masses of limestone simply riddled with cavities. The *magotes* truly are "rotten to the core." There is not merely a cave or two, but hundreds of them ramify the entire mountain range. Long icicles of stalactitic lime carbonate hang from the roofs of gaping caves. The very facings of the cliffs are vertically streaked with cream-colored lime formed by deposition from trickling water. Green trunks of trees growing from rock débris on ledges and in cracks paralleled the limestone striations high up the almost perpendicular walls in a most fantastic way. About the base, upon accumulated débris fallen from above, grew dense strips of royal palm, ceiba, *almácigo*, *yagruma*, hibiscus, and other tropical plants. Parrots and other birds made lively these belts of jungle.

#### SUGAR LOAF RIVER

At one place Ancon River coming straight against the foot of Sierra de Viñales does not turn aside to flow around the elevated mass, but strikes straight through by a natural tunnel more than a mile long. Rio Pan de Azucar flows close along the foot of the cliffs of one of the western *magotes*, almost circling it before turning away from the north side to sparkle across the plain and thence by narrow valley through

the northern belt of piedmont hills into the Gulf of Mexico. One type of stream is undermining the mountains internally, while the other is employing a system of external attack in the undertaking of wearing away the highlands.

No doubt there formerly were scores of natural bridges among the Guaniguanicos; some are still to be seen. These, weakened by continuing subterranean solution and erosion, caved in to leave gaps with vertical walls between the divided masses. Rock decay and erosional water scoured out the fallen débris to form the flat-floored plain and



WHERE THE CAYA-  
GUATEGE RIVER  
LEAVES THE VAL-  
LEY

A cave where one of the smaller streams of Viñales Valley enters a subterranean passage to the sea.

the sharply cut, picturesque defiles between isolated *magotes*. In time, weathering processes will completely efface the monolithic highlands and leave Viñales Valley a normal flat-roofed erosional depression having nothing of its present charm, but that is an unimportant matter of the remote future.

#### THE HILL OF HELL

Sierra del Infierno is the Cuban name for one of the larger elevations in the western extension of the group. This is completely honeycombed with bat-infested caverns of midnight darkness. The forbidding depths, the darkness, the weird whirring of thousands of bat



wings probably impelled some local scribe to invent the picturesque appellation of this *magote*: The Hill of Hell.

Out near Guane, beyond the end of the railroad, the writer crawled through an opening in a vertical wall of white limestone one sunny day to see what was inside. A cul-de-sac with a flat floor of about one-fourth acre in extent was found. White limestone cliffs surrounded this, save for a mere slit in one side, invisible a few steps away. Within this well-like opening beautiful specimens of royal palm were massed in such density that their leaves nearly closed above. In the gentle breeze entering by the narrow defile the great plumed fronds of the palms waved gracefully to and fro. Their shadows moved spectrally across the faces of the cliff, and splashes of sunlight checkered the floor. There were a number of banana trees, some blossoming hibiscus, and a few green shrubs. Near the center, children from neighboring farmsteads had built a playhouse with a miniature yard about it. But for the occasional note of a songbird hidden in the masses of foliage and the softest murmur and patter of wind among palm leaves, the place would have been completely silent.

The combination of things found in this exquisite spot was such as to develop the very distinct impression that here was a bit of fairyland. That impression remains tenaciously in the imagination and probably is not accomplishing much harm by doing so.

In this region are to be found diminutive tobacco fields at the bottoms of the well-like depressions. The soil in these *hoyos* is of the kind that produces very fine cigar tobacco; accordingly, wherever there is arable ground at the bottom it is utilized. One field is entered by climbing down a flight of 13 ladders, and its crop is cultivated with oxen let down when calves. At least one field is most easily entered by the subterranean passageway of a river, at time of low water.

#### GUANO CAVES

The limestone caves of Cuba contain much fertilizing material in the form of accumulated refuse from bat life. Near the entrance of one, the writer bored through a 5-foot deposit of this guano. The material is sometimes taken out for use as fertilizer in fields of tobacco and sugarcane. It is on the order of the bird guano which formerly was imported into the United States in large quantities from the west coast of South America.

#### TREES WITH LARGE TUMMIES

The most ludicrous tree of all the plant kingdom is the bottle palm of western Cuba (*Colpothrinax Wrightii*). When you first enter a forest of these big-tummied fellows, you are sure to emit some hearty guffaws, if your digestion is orderly. You even half expect the bloated

gentlemen standing about so conspicuously to laugh back at you, in accordance with the traditional joviality of fat men. But they don't; not even those with the scarecrow tufts of hair left on their heads by the gatherers of thatch.

The cause of the enlargement of the middle part of these palms is a secret of their own. It certainly can not be charged to gluttonous feeding, because the soil where the best developed specimens grow is an acid, sandy variety of marked infertility. On the other hand, it would not require any undue effort to imagine the swelling to be the result of overstraining on the part of the trees in wresting sustenance from lean soil.



Courtesy of H. H. Bennett

#### BOTTLE PALMS OF WESTERN CUBA

Forests of these curious trees characterize the sandy plains of Pinar del Rio. The leaves are extensively used for thatching roofs, particularly those of tobacco-curing barns.

The leaves of this strange plant are much in demand as roofing material for the curing barns of the tobacco planters. A thick roof of *barrigona* leaves lasts 20 years, gives perfect protection from rain, and allows the slow distribution and moderate absorption of sun heat that must be had for the even curing of a perfectly finished product. Metal and tile roofs cause entirely too much heating inside, and shingles neither wear well in the climate nor give as even distribution of heat as thatch.

The tree stands in danger of being exterminated in Cuba through the depredations of those wasteful thatch gatherers who chop it down, rather than climb up, in order to get the leaves. Some, of less ruthless traits, cut the leaves from the standing tree, leaving enough at the top for continuing growth. It would not be an unwise step for the Government to protect this useful and remarkable tree, as it has protected the stately royal palm.

## PALMS THAT GLITTER IN THE SUN

Although *palma cana*, bottle palm, and various lesser palms, pine, *paralejo* and *espartillo* grass are conspicuous forms of vegetation on the low coastal plains and the piedmont sections, royal palm is found in splendid growth over most of the limestone areas, often crowded in intriguing nooks and corners about the Guaniguanicos. Besides their tremendous usefulness in furnishing a large supply of excellent hog feed (the oily fruit) and abundant thatch for covering and siding houses and shading tobacco barns, royal palms add matchless charm to much of Cuba's countryside.

The writer recently journeyed out into various parts of the island where these palms handsomely decorate the entire countryside. The trip began in January and ended in March. The entire period was one of pleasant sunshine. The climate, without so much as a single hour's exception, was the kind one would have ordered had the gods given permission. One's entire embodiment tingled with the delicious pleasantness of it. Everywhere mocking birds sang the lyrics of a land of enchantment; bougainvillea flamed in raiment of gorgeous purple, pink, carmine, and saffron; royal palms lifted their curved plumes in lordly splendor above the incarnadined plains of Habana, Matanzas, central Camaguey and the alluring country of the *magôtes* in western Cuba.

There were two particular occasions when this part of the world changed to a place of ethereal, fairylike grandeur: At sunset and sunrise, among royal palms. Looking to the west one day, at the time of twilight, the stately palms loomed like purple statues against a background of fading tropical fire. In the absence of wind, their huge lower fronds curved downward with all the grace of an artist's imagination, as if bowed in thankfulness for the joy of life; while the two uppermost plumes stood like arms uplifted in supplication to a supreme power for continuing beneficence of tropical sunshine and shadow.

At this bewitching hour, the time when trade winds subside and a vast drapery of silence spreads out with the recession of the sun and its flaming reflection, the subtlety and delicacy of nature's ways are trenchantly revealed. One's thoughts almost become incoherent, confused by the sublimity of the inspiring spectacle. With the feeling that the ponderables of life are too abstruse and engulfing for serious reflection at a time when the immediate environment is that of delicious comfortableness and the onrushing darkness is accompanied by scenes of stimulating glory, one turns to walk silently and somewhat solemnly back to the *casa vivienda*.

We started before sunup on a long trip through southern Camaguey. A fog of considerable density lay over the countryside. The speed of

the motor developed a bit of January chilliness. Coats were buttoned and hands thrust deeply into trouser pockets. Then came the sun, and with it, marvelous opalescence. The mist turned to pearly drapery. Through it the purple palm leaves of the evening before were now of dull silver; their supporting trunks were invisible or nearly so. It was a morning of spectral magnificence. Never had I beheld anything like it. And yet the climax had not been reached!

As the sun's rays whipped down, the mist thinned above. Finally, the tips of the uppermost palm leaves, catching the direct rays, turned into points of highly polished silver, from which thin shafts of light shot out radially and gloriously as we rushed by. Sun dogs



Courtesy of H. H. Bennett

#### TREES THAT GROW ON CAVERNOUS LIMESTONE

The roots reach for food into deep cavities where the soil is concealed.

and strange celestial rays had come into the woods to dance and glitter on leaves of silver!

Dr. Tom Barber, the famous naturalist of Harvard University, a man who knows every nook and corner of Cuba, as well as most other countries of the Caribbean region, gives us an appealing glimpse of western Cuba in his charming monograph on the birds of Cuba:

The *Ruiseñor* of the Cubans is well named, for no bird of the Americas can wear more worthily the style of nightingale. Picture . . . a hot and misty dawn, high cliffs with tangled jungle and towering palms. The night and rains have given way to coppery rising sun which makes each arid clamberer stop willingly to sweat and pant. Suddenly, as the sunlight strikes into a dark ravine, a long, repeated crescendo of such unearthly beauty rings out that one sinks down to rest and drink in the rising flood of antiphonal music. Far and wide, from ridge to higher peak, another bird and then another answering, ring out the limpid, flutelike notes, so serene and yet so sad.

## TREES THAT HUNT HOLES

In the far western part of Cuba one comes to "dog-tooth land" (*tierra de dientes*). This is rocky ground, where unequal solution of the regional platform of coralline limestone, by rain water, has caused the development of sharp-edged protuberances. These stand about in sword fashion and in such plentifulness that one must be careful of every step. There is no difficulty at all about garnering sore shins and disabling wrenches in walking over land of this rudely spiked nature. It is even worse to travel where the rock is of the *piedra hueca* type. This holey variety of limestone is pierced by thousands of cavities, many of which appear as if they had been bored out with an auger. Slip carelessly into one of these holes, and you are about as likely to have a broken leg as a smarting shinbone. Cattle straying into areas of *piedra hueca* sometimes break their legs in the ubiquitous holes.

Much of this rock formation has on it no visible soil whatever; yet all of it is forested. Silk-cotton trees 5 feet in diameter were seen in some parts of the island where not so much as a spoonful of soil could have been collected from an acre of ground. The trees, which have their beginning in accumulations of leaves and pockets of disintegrated rock, send their rootlets out in search of food. Straying about over the surface, a hole is found, and through this they plunge to find food in the hidden soil of subterranean cavities.

## THE VUELTA-ABAJO

Cuba's Vuelta-Abajo is probably the most famed agricultural region of the world. For generations the contents of all genuine "Habana cigars" have been produced in this most favored of several favorable Cuban tobacco districts. It would seem an easy matter to find a place so renowned. Some who have written of tobacco have described the locality as a region of such well-defined and restricted boundaries that from one spot the perfect aromatic leaf required for the true Habana is obtained, while from another place but a few steps away a product of vastly inferior quality is grown.

But it wasn't easy to find. It was not difficult to locate what is known as the heart of the district, but to get at the boundaries, or to know when you go in or out of Vuelta-Abajo territory depends considerably upon the person you talk with. If he happens to be one who grows tobacco west of San Cristobal, quite likely he will tell you the district begins at a point just far enough east to take in his farm. As you go westward the boundary goes with you. Down at Consolacion del Sur you will be told the real district begins there, and still farther west, at Pinar del Rio, you will again be told it extends from that city to some miles beyond San Juan y Martinez.

The truth is, the Vuelta-Abajo, while constituting a genuine tobacco district very worthy of recognition, is somewhat indefinite as to boundaries, certainly in so far as these relate to definite positions readily accepted by the interested inhabitants of the region.

Not all the growers, however, juggle thus with the geography of the world's leading tobacco section. Some of those questioned in the vicinity of Herradura replied readily: "No, no, this not Vuelta-Abajo, this is the Semi-Vuelta district."

Certain it is, at any rate, that in the section from the vicinity of the city of Pinar del Rio and westward through the country about San Luis and San Juan y Martinez you are in thoroughly good Vuelta-Abajo territory. Certain it is, also, that some very excellent tobacco is grown east of this roughly defined area, as in the vicinity of Consolacion del Sur. Much depends on the soil, the fertilization, and the curing and assorting of the leaf after it is grown.

The most perfect wrapper must be of silky thinness and of fine, velvet texture. To produce this, the leaf of optimum quality, well-drained sandy or gravelly soil of a quartzose nature is essential, and the plants must be grown and cured under shade. The clay lands of the Partido district near Habana and of the various districts comprising the Vuelta-Arriba region of Santa Clara Province produce different grades of tobacco. The Partido leaf has good color; that of the Vuelta-Arriba is grown on mulatto and dark clay soils, and generally is considered of not so good quality.

On the sandy lands of the Vuelta-Abajo there must be liberal enrichment with the right kind of fertilizers. Tobacco is a heavy feeder, and to produce good yields on the thin, sandy, and gravelly lands of Pinar del Rio it is necessary to supply large amounts of those most essential elements of plant food: potassium, nitrogen, and phosphorus. The potassium must be in the form of the sulphate or carbonate. Chloride salts of the element invariably give poor burning quality, causing your cigar to give forth miniature explosions from time to time. The best form of nitrogen is said to be contained in cottonseed meal, although the manure of corn-fed horses obtained at the Habana and Santa Clara cavalry posts also gives good results.

Irrigation is practiced on the larger plantations, and the shade is full cheesecloth cover. The cloth is stretched over the top and sides of the entire field. Some of the smaller growers use only partial shade by placing over the tobacco plants leaves of royal palm supported in squares or strips by scaffolding.

#### CURING THE GOLDEN LEAVES

The unspotted leaves from the middle part of the stem give the best product. These are handled with much care, from the time the seed is sown in specially prepared beds until the fragrant carots are

baled for shipment to Habana. Harvesting begins when the color of the leaf is yellowish-green, known to the growers as *anaragando*. The writer was not at all sure he could detect any color difference between the leaves that were being plucked and those that were being left on the stalk for further ripening. There was, however, no hesitation of procedure on the part of the expert harvesters, mostly women.

Leaf by leaf the tobacco is hand picked from the stalk. These are carefully placed one upon the other, bottom sides facing, until 32 to 36 have been collected, enough to fill a "stick." Carriers, usually girls and boys, take this handful of plucked leaves from the picker over to the basket placed in the aisles between the plants. Here the leaves are tenderly transferred to burlap-lined shallow baskets. When these are filled one layer deep, a burlap flap is turned over the leaves, and another crew of carriers takes the baskets into the barn, where the leaves are taken out immediately, strung on wooden sticks and finally hung for the long process of curing.

Direct sunshine never touches the precious wrappers, as they are handled on the better-managed plantations. With the filler, which really makes up the body of a cigar, the methods are quite different. This is grown in the sun and does not receive nearly so much care as the wrapper. Much of the filler is partly cured in the sun by hanging on field scaffolds for a day or more before transference to the barn.

The curing process is too long and complicated to describe here. Often the leaves remain in the barn for three months, and throughout this period the humidity must be scrupulously regulated by window airing in fair weather and by charcoal fires during rainy spells.

The cured leaves from the barn when not of a sufficiently bright color are taken down and worked into stacks for fermenting. This proceeds little by little until the desired color is obtained, the temperature being controlled by tearing down and rebuilding the stacks.



Courtesy of H. H. Bennett

#### HARVESTING THE FAMOUS VUELTA-ABAJO TOBACCO

The greatest care is taken in the cultivation, harvesting, and curing of the fine tobacco in the Vuelta-Abajo district.

Now comes the grading, a very important part of the tobacco business. On some of the better plantations as many as 65 to 70 assortments or classes of leaf are worked out by experienced graders. In this operation the leaves are individually examined and reexamined, some going through the hands of six or more graders variously qualified for special skill by generations of training. Much of the work of grading is left to the factory by the average small grower, who frequently is unable to carry the separations beyond a few basic colors, such as *maduro*, *colorado* and *claro*.

#### THE CIGAR DE LUXE!

In Habana you select one of a number of famous brands of cigars, light it, and feel contented. It will be a good smoke, if you appreciate superior flavor and aroma; and you will have the satisfaction of knowing that no better cigar can be bought the world over.

Out on one of the big Vuelta-Abajo tobacco farms you would find something much better to smoke, that is to say, you would there have plantation-made cigars into whose composition goes the very cream of selected leaf. That is the kind the *administrador* smokes; this is truly the cigar de luxe. Unfortunately, it can not be bought or had anywhere but on a Vuelta-Abajo plantation. The best Habana cigar made is not nearly so good as one of these (according to the writer's appraisal) especially if it has been kept in a hog-bladder pouch along with a few vanilla beans. Place yourself in a comfortable rocker on the broad, tile-floored veranda of the manager's palatial residence on a January afternoon, light up one of these de luxe cigars and you will speedily observe that you have thus gathered about yourself a situation impossible of duplication under any other circumstances. The weather will be that of the most pleasant June day of the Middle Atlantic States. You will gaze down a long avenue of royal palms rising majestically from a flowering hedge of hibiscus, across the valley of the Rio San Juan upon the pale purple slopes of the distant Lomas de los Contadores; mocking birds will be singing joyously in the tropic shrubbery about the *casa vivienda*. If you care for it, the boy will fetch a chilled bottle of carbonated water and whatever else the whim suggests. This will be one of your really perfect days; you will be in tune with life, and you will say to your host: "Señor, the cigar you have given me is excellent beyond belief; and the climate here, Señor, I am sure you can not possibly appreciate how entirely delightful it is. Why, I had not supposed that anywhere in the world January was acquainted with anything of the kind." To this your host will reply: "Ah, Señor, our tobacco, it is good, yes. You understand, Señor, the ground here is of the best quality; it is—ah, how do you say it?—It is *perfecto*! It gives to our tobacco the very good texture and the aroma, ah, yes, the *aroma suprema*!"



# TAKING YOUR CAR TO CUBA

By ENRIQUE CORONADO SUÁREZ

*Assistant Editor of the BOLETÍN DE LA UNIÓN PANAMERICANA*

IT is certain that among the millions of American tourists who seek new places in which to escape the rigors of winter there are many who are completely unaware that only a short distance away from the United States there is a beautiful and hospitable country richly endowed by nature, which offers them the pleasures of a delightful climate and most beautiful scenery as well as other enjoyments provided by human agencies. This lovely land is the Republic of Cuba, justly called "The Queen of the Tropics." According to legend, it brought to the lips of Admiral Christopher Columbus, when for the first time he stepped upon its fertile shores on October 28, 1492, the phrase, "It is the most beautiful land that man's eyes have ever beheld." And history relates that when the Great Discoverer rendered his report to the King and Queen of Spain he said, in speaking of Cuba, "This land, Your Gracious Majesties, is so marvelously fair that it surpasses all others in enchantment as the light of day surpasses the darkness of night. I have often said to my subordinates that, however much I might exert myself to give Your Majesties a complete account of it, my tongue could not speak the whole truth, nor could my pen write it, for truly I am so amazed by its loveliness that, although I have written fully of other regions, with their fruits and flowers and their varied qualities, this one exceeds my powers." Such words, in conjunction with the many other descriptions which historians, poets, and other authors have written in praise of this sunny isle are more than sufficient to invite the American tourist to these fresh fields and pastures new which lie almost within his sight.

The journey to Cuba from the United States may be comfortably made to-day in three ways, by sea, by land, and by air. But considering that the second way, if by automobile, offers perhaps the greatest attraction since upon one's arrival in Cuba it affords a means for a closer view of an exotic countryside, I shall confine myself to a brief description of such a journey and of the ease with which the writer has just made it.

Taking as our starting point the city of Miami, Fla., the trip to Cuba may be made in the following way: Leave Miami not later than 8 o'clock in the morning and drive 90 miles between that city and Matecumbe Key, where one takes the steamer the same day at

1 o'clock in the afternoon. It is important to purchase tickets ahead of time in Miami, since the space for automobiles in the ferry-boat is limited, and if a ticket is not secured, one has to wait over a day. The passage from one key to the next takes two hours, after which there is a drive of 12 miles before another ferry is taken for a second trip of two hours. Then one motors 40 miles to Key West. The cost of these two ferry trips, including the fare of the driver, ranges between \$3.50 and \$6.50 according to the weight of the car. Other passengers pay \$1 apiece.

Since the ferryboats and the steamer from Key West to Habana do not make connections the same day, the night must be passed in the former city. The next day the steamer sails at 1 o'clock in the afternoon, arriving at the Cuban capital at 7 o'clock in the evening. The customs officials in Key West require all automobiles to be ready for embarkation at the port at 11 o'clock in the morning, at which time a declaration must be filled out, giving the make of the car, name of the owner, number of the motor, and other simple data. It is therefore important that every driver should carry with him his registration card, his driving permit, and all other information needed to fill out this declaration without loss of time. The cost of transporting the automobile from Key West to Habana is \$15 each way. Passengers, including the driver, pay \$17.50 apiece, or for \$30 may buy a round-trip ticket good for 60 days. Other rates are made for 10-day tickets.

It is essential that travelers should know in advance the name of the hotel in Habana where they are to stay, since the port authorities require that this should be placed on the declaration. Charges in even the best Habana hotels are very moderate this season. As soon as passengers have transported their baggage to the dock in Key West it is in the care of the steamer officers, who have it carried to the cabins and on arrival at Habana to the customhouse, where passengers obtain it after examination. The same is the case with the automobile. In the customhouse at Habana the driver is given a free temporary permit to operate his car in Cuba, the permit being valid for 90 days. The car must be taken out of the country by the same port at which it enters. At the customhouse are found the agents of the various hotels, easily identified by the name on their caps. They take charge of the transportation of baggage and assist the tourist in everything necessary for removing his automobile and getting through the customs, which is not an onerous process. Any returning traveler may bring into the United States free of duty 50 cigars, 300 cigarettes, and 3 pounds of smoking tobacco.

Since the city of Habana is one of the most beautiful capitals in the world because of its magnificent buildings, imposing churches, noble historical remains, delightful promenades, beaches, hotels, recreation facilities, and many other attractions, the tourist will be well advised



Courtesy of the Department of Public Works of Cuba

#### THE CAPITOL, HABANA

A visit to this magnificent capitol, which was officially inaugurated February 24, 1931, reveals a succession of handsomely decorated and appointed rooms. Here is also found the zero milestone for the Central Highway—a 23-carat diamond set in the floor of the rotunda.

to remain there at least a week before starting out on the trip through the interior of the island, in order that he may have ample opportunity to view all the points of interest. The new capitol is worthy of special mention for the beauty of the materials of which it is constructed and the interesting but not gaudy use of color in its decorations. It is considered by many a much more handsome building than the Capitol of the United States. But the tourist must always remember that if he limits his visit to Cuba to Habana he will not know Cuba, and he will, moreover, have lost the opportunity of making one of the most picturesque motor trips imaginable.

This journey, from Habana eastward to Santiago and westward to Pinar del Rio, is taken to-day over the Central Highway or *Carretera Central*, one of the most perfect pieces of modern highway engineering in the world, which will bear comparison with the best in the United



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#### THE CENTRAL HIGHWAY OF CUBA

The splendid 700-mile concrete highway which spans the island, connecting all provincial capitals, is a model of road construction, in which steep grades, sharp curves, and grade crossings have been either entirely eliminated or reduced to a minimum.

States.<sup>1</sup> The length of this magnificent concrete highway is about 600 miles to the east of Habana and about 100 miles to the west. As the Province of Pinar del Rio has been eloquently described by Mr. Hugh H. Bennett in the preceding article in this issue, I shall limit myself to a brief description of the trip to the historic city of Santiago. It may be added here that the price of gasoline in Cuba last October was from 28 to 35 cents a gallon, filling stations being conveniently located all along the Central Highway.

Leaving Habana early in the morning, the motorist may drive leisurely along the highway, enjoying the beautiful tropical scenery on either side until he arrives at the city of Matanzas, picturesquely situated at the mouth of two large rivers. Near this city of 62,000 inhabitants are numerous attractions such as the Caves of Bellamar, the incomparable Valley of Yumuri, and the Hermitage of Montserrat.

<sup>1</sup> See The Central Highway of Cuba, by Charles M. Upham, in BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for June, 1931.

Before arriving at Matanzas one may visit Madruga, the center of a region of sulphur and iron springs and of one of the principal sugar-making districts of the island. The next morning one starts out again, this time for the ancient city of Camaguey, third city in size on the island. It presents to the tourist a charming colonial aspect and many reminders that it was founded more than 400 years ago. In the course of the second day's trip one passes through the beautiful city of Santa Clara, started in 1689 by some residents of Remedios on the site once occupied by the Indian town of Cubanacan, believed by Columbus to be in Asia, and now the center of an important tobacco-growing district. One likewise passes through the cities of



Courtesy of the Department of Public Works of Cuba

#### A STRETCH OF THE CUBAN CENTRAL HIGHWAY

Sancti Spiritus, one of the oldest in Cuba, and Ciego de Avila. Throughout the day the tourist will be delighted at the aspect of the wide-stretching sugarcane fields situated in a fertile region adorned by palms of singular beauty.

The night is passed at Camaguey in a famous hotel, once a barracks, and long the delight of all visitors because of its large rooms, walls 3 feet thick, and fascinating patios where one may take his ease in the midst of a profusion of tropical plants and flowers. This, like many others, is a charming place in which to linger; but if the motorist's time is limited, he may set forth next morning on the last 200 miles of his journey to Santiago, the eastern terminus of the Central Highway.

This section of the road passes through one of the loveliest of all the lovely regions of Cuba. About 100 miles to the east of Camaguey the traveler is enchanted at the distant view of mountains whose varied tints make them seem a fairylike vision. On the way the tourist has the opportunity of visiting and admiring the towns of Guaimaro, where the first constitutional convention of Cuba met; Holguin, center of another important sugar zone; Bayamo, founded in 1513; Baire, where the famous rallying cry was given which launched the war of independence; and Palma Soriano, the historic town where José Martí, the Cuban national hero, died. Finally the traveler arrives in the notable city of Santiago. In the days of the *conquistadores* it was the point of departure for the expeditions of Cortés and de Soto for the conquest of Mexico and Florida, but to most Americans it is better known for the famous charge of Roosevelt's Rough Riders up San Juan Hill, just outside the city, and the defeat of Cervera's fleet upon endeavoring to escape from the harbor. If indeed nature has bestowed her beauty especially on some favored regions of the universe, it may be said without fear of contradiction that in the fertile fields and lofty mountains surrounding Santiago her gifts have been lavished with a prodigal hand. Mr. T. Philip Terry well says of Santiago in his useful *Guide to Cuba*:

Ancient Santiago, spread fanwise on sun-drenched hills that overlook one of the loveliest and most romantically historic bays in the southern world, possesses a lure which the most blasé traveler finds difficulty in resisting. Facing the blue Caribbean whose drowsy bosom thrilled to the touch of Columbus's caravels four centuries ago; backed by flower-decked mountains that shut it in from the workaday world, this age-old capital of the *conquistadores* is to many one of the most pleasing and captivating of the Cuban cities. Known for its beautiful Spanish women and handsome men; as the birthplace of Heredia, Cuba's greatest poet; as the place where Americans crushed Spain's armada and by so doing destroyed Iberian ascendancy in the Antilles for all time, Santiago is a felicitous blend of the frigid north and the sensuous Tropics, of Old Spain and the New World. It is a voluptuous lotophagi retreat that possesses in a marked degree the ability to take the nerve strain out and replace it with a placidity sometimes unknown in the hustling Northland.

It is to be regretted that lack of space prevents a more extensive account of the cities and of the places of interest in this privileged land. It must, however, be added that in all the towns of the island the American tourist will find imposing monuments, beautiful colonial residences, magnificent churches, and historic scenes which will recall not only the Spanish *conquistadores* and the colony which they founded but the Cuban soldiers, who fought so nobly and untiringly for independence, and their American comrades in arms. The enjoyment of all these marvelous natural and historical scenes and the proverbial hospitality of the Cubans will give a modern significance to the words of the Great Discoverer: "It is the most beautiful land that man's eyes have ever beheld."



HIS EXCELLENCY DR. GONZALO ZALDUMBIDE

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Ecuador in the United States

The new Minister of Ecuador, who presented his credentials to President Hoover December 16, 1931, represented his country in the United States in the same capacity in 1928-29. Doctor Zaldumbide's diplomatic career began as Secretary of Legation in Lima, Peru, followed by a similar appointment to Paris which he held throughout the World War until 1922, serving in addition as Delegation Secretary to the Peace Conference in 1919. While Chargé d'Affaires in Rome, 1922-23, he was appointed Minister to France. Before coming to Washington in 1928 he also represented Ecuador as Minister ad interim in London and Brussels, and prior to his second appointment to Washington he filled the cabinet post of Minister of Foreign Relations.

# THE VOLCÁN REGION OF PANAMÁ

By MARCEL J. BUSSARD

*Associate Member, American Society of Civil Engineers*

THE Volcán region is situated in the Province of Chiriquí and is a part of the westernmost territory of the Republic of Panama. Historically, Chiriquí once formed a part of that great territory of Veragua,<sup>1</sup> the object of aspirations on the part of many of the early Spanish conquistadores.

Juan Vázquez de Coronado, the famed explorer, is credited as having been the first to penetrate its domains in a resourceful march across the continent from the Golfo de Dulce on the Pacific, over the Sierras de Talamanca to the Valley of the Changuinola, where gold was discovered in the river sands. Perafán de Ribera, another Spanish cavalier, is said to have conducted an expedition after Coronado's death from Cartago in Costa Rica to the Bay of Almirante on the Atlantic, returning across the continent to the country surrounding the present-day town of David, where he left a few settlers.

This Province of Chiriquí boasts numerous river systems, and the highest mountains of the Isthmus. *El Volcán de Chiriquí*, still known by its Indian name, "El Baru," is the giant extinct volcano which once held in awe the tribes that roamed its skirting fastnesses. Its elevation above sea level is 3,436 meters, or 11,270 feet.

Although a foot trail leads almost to the top of El Baru, few persons have ever reached the rim of the crater owing to its precipitous slopes. Several curious natives who claim to have achieved the ascent hold that a look within revealed a deep, obscure lake of water, thus satisfying their unconscious wish that the volcano is forever dormant. Together with its counterfort and accessory summits, namely Cerro Pando and Pico Rovalo, this immense crater peak forms very definitely the continental divide of this region and is the nucleus from which spring many of the streams flowing to the Pacific and Atlantic littorals.

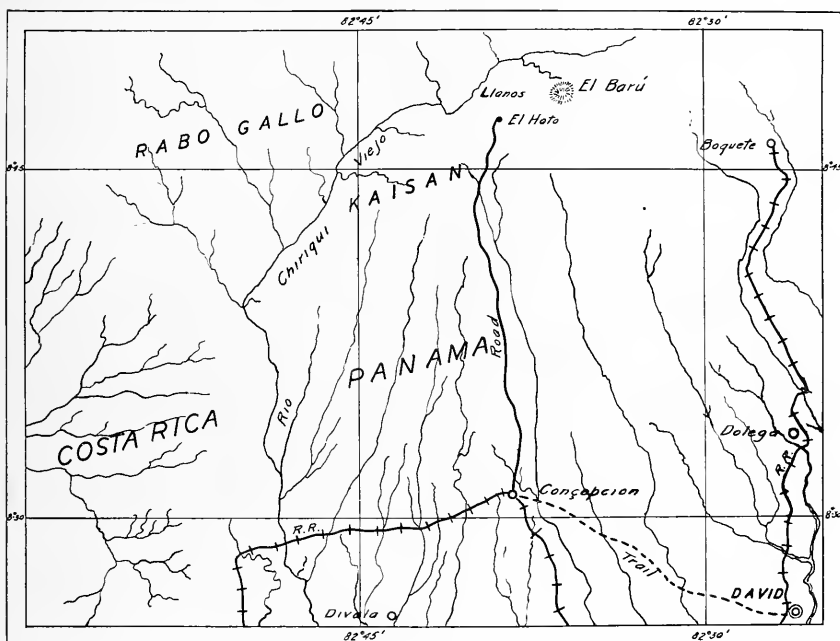
On the mountain slopes to the eastward, coffee recognized as equal to the best in the world is grown by contented finca owners of many nationalities. To the south in the foothills snuggles the little town of Boquete, which is the railhead and shipping point for the produce of the region, chiefly coffee.

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<sup>1</sup> Of this territory 625 square leagues were granted in 1537 by the Spanish Crown to Luis Colón, grandson of Columbus, who discovered it in 1502.—*Editor*.



West of El Barú and spreading from its base lie the flatlands, or *Llanos del Volcán*, an extension of some 15,000 acres. This is a veritable tableland, the natural handiwork of the monster volcano during its long period of activity. One need not be a geologist to understand immediately that this plateau was at one time part of a luxuriant valley denuded by continuous hot eruptions of rock and ash (*ceniza*) and at last completely filled to an almost perfect level. It seems an incredible coincidence that the Great Builder should have passed into eternal repose at a time so propitious. One can but visualize the film of hot, fine ash continually darkening the sky over



Courtesy of Marcel J. Bussard

MAP SHOWING LOCATION OF THE VOLCÁN REGION OF PANAMA

this now flat plain, with the occasional terrific outbursts of huge, hot boulders, during the period of deposition.

In recent generations, the *Llanos del Volcán* have given pasture to herds of cattle and horses, and were a portion of a great ranch known as "Potreros del Volcán," an extensive land grant to an enterprising family of pioneers. The tract has changed ownership numerous times since the occupancy of the original grantees, and now the industry of cattle raising no longer prevails, although groups of wild horses and cattle, descendants of the first introduced, may still be glimpsed occasionally in the distance. The old ranch house, "El Hato," stands as a picturesque land mark of an earlier period and is the terminus of the road from the provincial town of Concepción.



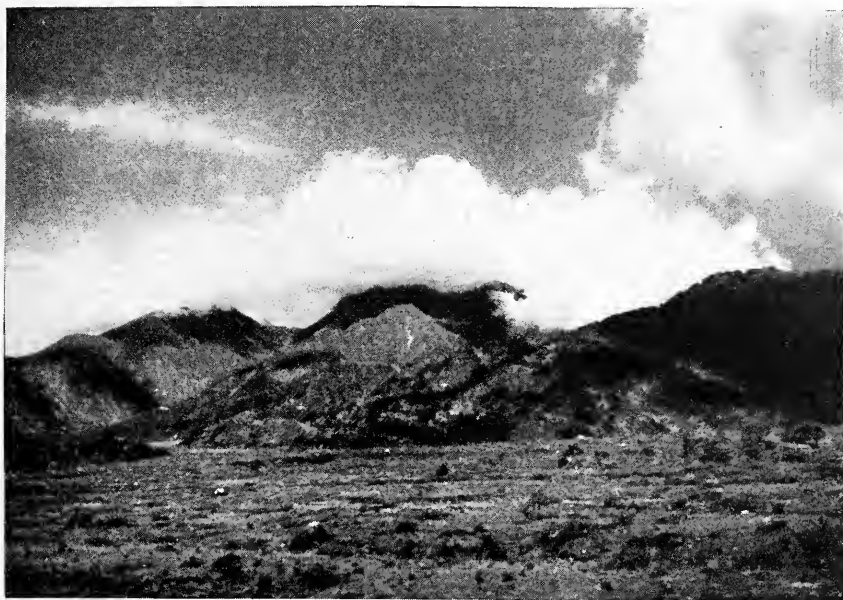
CHIRIQUÍ VOLCANO

This extinct volcano, still known by its Indian name, "El Barú," is the highest peak not only in the Province of Chiriquí but on the Isthmus of Panama.

Río Chiriquí Viejo, which skirts the *Llanos del Volcán* to the north, lies at the foot of heavily jungled cordilleras which form a series of immense buttresses for the river's present gorge. This river, one of the largest in the Province, is more than 62 miles long, its drainage basin comprises 625,000 to 750,000 acres, and its source is hidden in a mountain gulch several miles to the northeast of the slopes of El Barú. The stream follows a course generally westward, and borders the northern edge of the volcanic plain for some 15 miles, whence it makes an abrupt deviation to the southward and rumbles onward toward the Pacific through a canyon 500 feet deep. It is not navigable even for the native dugout (*cayuga*) in the uplands, where the foaming torrent nowhere subsides to calm water. It descends to sea level from an elevation of 8,000 feet in slightly more than 60 miles. The roar of the river is not only echoed through the canyon, but resounds over the surrounding mountains and is faintly audible even at a great distance. The crystalline swiftness of the water disappears in the lowland flats bordering the Pacific, and the stream becomes turbid on its journey through cultivated banana areas to the sea.

The upland districts drained by Río Chiriquí Viejo as it traverses the Volcán region are locally known to the east as "Kaisan," and to the west as "Rabo Gallo," extending to Costa Rica.

Kaisan was the name of an ancient cacique, or chief, of Indian tribes inhabiting those mountains. Tradition states that his followers often made war with Dorace, another cacique, and his men



Courtesy of Marcel J. Bussard

#### THE CORDILLERA OF THE VOLCAN REGION

Part of the rugged mountain chain bordering the *Llanos del Volcán* on the north.

The center of Dorace's domain was Dolega, a short-lived Spanish settlement which was abandoned shortly after a church had been erected. Thereafter, the bone of contention was the church bell, for which both caciques fought intermittently, each carrying it off in turn as the principal trophy of war.

Rabo Gallo is said to have inherited its name from the old tribal custom its Indians practiced of using the tail feathers of certain wild birds for personal adornment.

To-day these territories are practically uninhabited with the exception of a dozen isolated families of squatters and a few roving groups of gypsylike Indians. Most of these speak a crude Spanish, but are pure-blooded descendants of Indian forefathers. Apparently they have inherited the custom of a certain muteness and aloofness toward strangers. They never divulge any of the secrets of their ancestry, and regard a traveler with a tinge of strange distrust, scrutinizing askance his manner and every motion. They maintain themselves as independently as did their ancestors, out of reach of officials, squatting and planting wherever fancy takes them. Proudly they claim their own distinct *Chiricano* nationality, and are sometimes offended if one refers to them casually as Panamanians.

Once or twice a year these primitive folk descend from their mountain homes to celebrate the annual fiestas in distant villages.

Usually such celebrations last from three to six days, and most of the time is occupied in dancing the native *cumbia* and *tamborito*, feasting, and drinking.

Solemn proof of the numbers which once populated these lands lies in the great burial grounds which have been discovered on ridge tops and mounds throughout the area. Numerous articles of pottery, stone implements, and gold adornments have been recovered from these sacred graves by individual exploiters. Some of the findings indicate a touch of Mayan character. Possibly a few of the old tribes were driven from Mexico and Guatemala and found peace and seclusion for a time in these localities.



Courtesy of Marcel J. Bussard

#### PLAZA IN DAVID, CAPITAL OF THE PROVINCE OF CHIRIQUÍ

The Volcán region will become more accessible with the extension to the Costa Rican border of the national highway which, early in 1931, was opened to automobile traffic as far as David.

The story is related how, a generation ago, an ambitious but no less avaricious settler bartered with the Indian squatters and mountaineers for all the gold relics they could recover from the graves. The Indians accepted payment in equal weight of silver coins, then the national currency, for each piece of gold found. Grave exploiting became the constant occupation of many among the ignorant inhabitants, and it is rumored that the trader amassed a considerable fortune from this enterprise.

The presence of gold or other precious metals in mine or placer deposits is not known in this part of the Republic to-day. However, a legend which persists among certain of the older families in the

provincial towns states that at the time of the Spanish conquest the Indians had been working a very rich gold mine, the name of which has been passed down as "La Estrella," meaning "The Star." Tradition relates that before one of the Indian workers could be captured and forced to reveal the mine's location, the workings were destroyed and the mine site permanently obliterated by flooding.

Families of North American and European nationals have of late years started coffee plantations in the territory adjoining the *Llanos del Volcan* and are also successfully growing fruit and garden truck of the temperate and semitropical zones. In spite of the wet and dry seasons, the unusual fertility of the soil and the many brooks and streams make possible several crops a year. An area of over 100,000 acres of excellent coffee land, also adaptable to the production of vegetables, but now in a state of virgin forest, is available for future development. Ready markets for such produce exist in the populated centers of the Republic and in the Canal Zone, which at present import a large percentage of the green vegetables consumed.

This territory is easily accessible excepting in the rainy season, when the road to El Hato from Concepcion, a distance of 19 miles, is oftentimes impassable for motor vehicles. The improvement of this highway will complete the final link with other points in the country and the exterior. Concepcion and David, the provincial capital, are served by the National Railroad running from Puerto Armuelles, which is a port of call for a regular line of steamers. Within a few minutes' travel of David is also situated a modern airport which is touched regularly by scheduled planes making the Central American run. The airport is situated in the vicinity of the river port, Pedregal, which receives small coastal vessels from the national capital. Upon final completion of the Central Highway of the Republic of Panama, El Volcan will be easily reached by motor from all cities of the Republic.

The region ranges in elevation from 3,000 to 6,000 feet above sea level and offers a delightful climate with no extremes of temperature. The mountain streams not only lend themselves to irrigation and water power, but also to excellent bathing and fishing. Varieties of American brook trout have been stocked, and native fish are also plentiful. There are several crater lakes known as "Lagos del Volcan" which offer opportunities for water sports, and the surrounding forests abound in wild game of many descriptions. Here is another garden spot for the nature lover and student of botany.

Yearly, increasing numbers of vacationists visit this district where the hot tropical sunshine is softened and flavored with the coolness of mountain air. The Republic of Panama is keenly interested in the continued colonization and development of this upland province, and rightfully believes in the vast potentialities of the Volcan region.

# EDUCATIONAL BEACONS IN COLOMBIA

## I

### THE NATIONAL PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE FOR GIRLS IN BOGOTA

By FRANCISCA RADKE, Ph. D.

*Principal of the Institute*

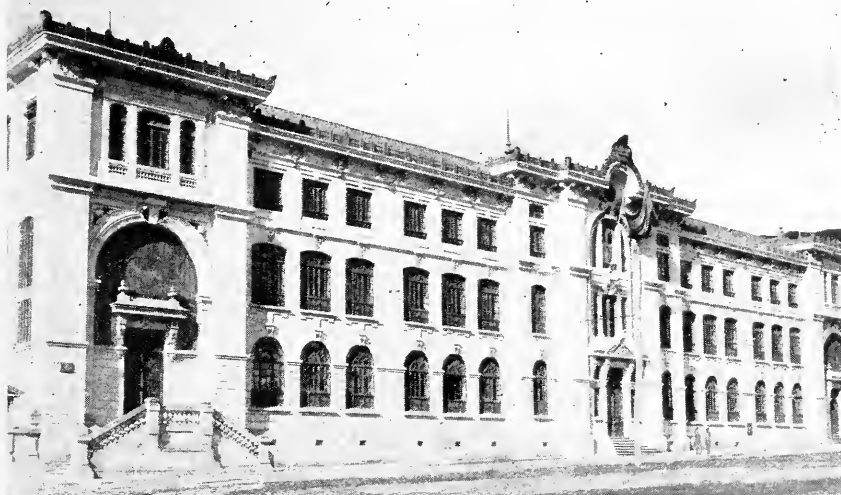
THE history of the development of secondary education for girls in Colombia is an interesting chapter in the story of South American feminism; a concrete expression of this movement may be found in the National Pedagogical Institute for Women, which had its inception in 1917. It should be noted that the visible rôle of the Colombian woman in public life has been very small, for her ideal has always been that of housewife and mother. The natural riches of the country have generally permitted husbands and fathers to consider their wives and daughters as ornaments of family life, far removed from everything ugly or disagreeable. For this purpose education for society, *savoir-vivre*, the fine arts and deeply religious training sufficed. But travel, immigration to Colombia, the closer contact of the capital with the rest of the world through air service, could not fail to exert an influence upon home life. The newspapers, books, motion pictures, cafés, imposing modern buildings, highways and railways that brought the country into closer communication with foreign lands and thought contributed to the development of a more complex life of quickened tempo, whose effects women, as well as men, could not escape.

Two novels may be mentioned as expressive of their respective epochs. If Jorge Isaacs' *María*, a rural idyll, was the literary choice of the years before 1910, *Ifigenia*, by the Venezuelan author Teresa de la Parra, may be termed the expression of the new era. The immense success of the latter was due to the fact that it embodied the ideas fermenting among many women who had still neither the strength nor the audacity to champion them publicly. Artistically, perhaps, this work is not of the first rank, but it must always be considered a landmark in the history of women's development.

The effective movement toward modernizing the education of Colombian women came from a group of men who were able to convince Congress of the validity of their ideas and who had the satisfaction of securing in 1917 the passage of a law providing for the establishment in Bogota of pedagogic institutes for men and women. The names of Pomponio Guzmán, Miguel Abadía Méndez, Juan N.

Corpas, José Ignacio Vernaza, Tomás Rueda Vargas, and Karl Gloeckner, a German, will always be intimately connected with this idea of vital significance in the education and intellectual advance of the Colombian woman and her brother.

Between the passage of the law and the execution of the work but a short time intervened. A Colombian architect, Pablo de la Cruz, was entrusted with the construction of the building for the Pedagogic Institute for Girls, since he had already had experience in similar work in various South American countries. It was desired to make the structure as modern, hygienic, and practical as possible.

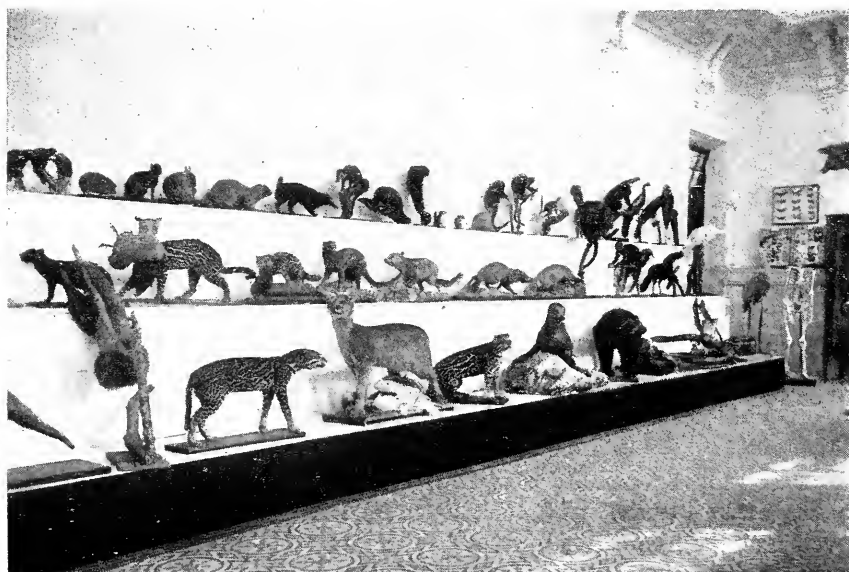


THE NATIONAL PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE FOR GIRLS, BOGOTA

In this handsome building, located in one of the best sections of the Colombian capital, girls are prepared for positions in the normal schools of the republic.

The situation of the building, as shown in the photograph, is most delightful. It is located in the Chapinero section, the most charming, healthful, and fashionable of the capital. On the east the Cordillera rises only 1,600 feet away, while on the west lies the lovely plain of Bogotá. Air and light are abundant; the constant breeze cleanses the atmosphere and the bright sun of this high plateau drives away disease. This plain, more than 7,600 feet above sea level, may well be called a great health resort.

The National Pedagogic Institute for Girls has for its purpose the training of teachers for normal schools throughout the country. In order to offer a modern European education to the students, the Colombian Government engaged in 1926 four German university



Courtesy of Dr. Fabio Lozano

#### THE NATIONAL PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE

The 92 rooms of the main building are equipped and furnished throughout in modern style. Upper: The library. Lower: A corner of the biological museum.



graduates who, with some of the best teachers in the country, began and still direct the work of the institute.

Since the furnishings, the schoolroom equipment, and the teaching supplies were ordered from Germany and the United States, the 92 rooms of the principal building have an absolutely modern appearance. The classrooms for natural science may be especially mentioned because of their provision for individual work. It is hardly necessary to say that the purely feminine branches are not disregarded. A new subject was the training in housework which, in addition to cooking, gives instruction in all tasks to be done in the school, all being enthusiastically performed by the students.



Courtesy of Dr. Fabio Lozano

#### THE PRACTICE SCHOOL OF THE INSTITUTE

Where students have the opportunity of teaching under supervision.

The main purpose of the institute is training in practical pedagogy, which is therefore the most important subject. Girls from all parts of the nation are eligible for entrance at 14 years of age. Each year 30 girls are selected by competitive examination from the aspirants, who generally number about 120. In three years a groundwork is laid, and two years more are devoted especially to psychology and practical pedagogy. The curriculum and courses of study are adapted from those of German schools, modified to suit the needs of the Colombian student. For practice teaching there is a model school belonging to the institute. It offers a 6-year course to pupils between 7 and 14 years of age, 30 in each class. These six classes are taught,

under the supervision of the teachers of the Pedagogic Institute, by the fourth and fifth year students, the latter being thus prepared for their degree, which they generally obtain at the age of 21 or 22 years. They may then consider their studies ended or may specialize in the 2-year supplementary courses, which include psychology, biology, gymnasium, religion, and literature.

It is proposed to begin next year a course for kindergarten teachers. Thus the Pedagogic Institute will include a 6-year model school, a 5-year course in the Pedagogic Institute, and two years of supplementary courses (or a year of preparation for kindergarten teaching). The total number of students registered is 350, of whom 120 are boarders.

The expenses for the students are trifling. The Government not only offers free board and lodging but also gives textbooks and supplies to those holding scholarships. The only obligation on the part of a graduate is four years' teaching service in whatever Government school she may be placed, but even this duty is not rigorously exacted.

The visitor entering the school finds a group of students who, in spite of their studies, have not lost the joy of youth. Their bright eyes, strong bodies, dexterity in sports and general good health indicate that this first generation, in establishing a new tradition, has not lost its feminine charm nor poise, and that it still preserves the balance between what was the custom of the past and what is demanded by the present.

## II

### POPULAR CULTURE

By CONCHA ROMERO JAMES

*Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union*

Many cultural activities recently have been started by a group of Colombian intellectual leaders who believe in high thinking and creative effort. With a maximum faith in their work and in their people these men and women, prominent in the educational, literary, artistic, and economic life of the Republic, have undertaken a number of activities designed to benefit all the different classes of people not only in their lovely and ancient capital but also all over the country. Lacking abundant resources, they have set to work without impressive budgets but with unlimited confidence in their plans. The following paragraphs are intended to give a brief summary of the activities that have been developed within the last twelve months through the inspiration of this group.

One of the most important events was the organization of the *Centro de Estudios*, a society composed of prominent citizens interested in contributing to the cultural life of the nation by means of lectures,



Courtesy of Dr. Fabio Lozano

#### THE NATIONAL PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE FOR GIRLS

Upper: A class in cooking, part of the domestic science course. Lower: The dining room of the Institute.

concerts, art exhibitions, short courses, and publications of a literary or scientific nature. The president of this institution, Dr. Gustavo Santos, is highly respected for his broad culture and civic spirit. Although scarcely more than a year old, the *Centro* has published a volume containing some of the lectures delivered at its headquarters and has also sponsored the publication of the historical novel *Zoraya*, by Daniel Samper Ortega, which has been hailed by the critics as a lasting contribution to Colombian literature. The *Centro* has recently inaugurated a series of excursions to points of artistic and historic interest in Bogotá, as well as to social welfare institutions and industrial plants, in order that the members may acquire a first-hand knowledge of the city and its resources. Among the distinguished persons who have lectured at the *Centro* are Dr. Raimundo Rivas, noted historian and former Minister of Foreign Affairs, who gave a course on the political ideology of Bolívar; Miss Frances R. Grant, vice president of the Roerich Museum in New York, who delivered two lectures on the art and literature of the United States; and Dr. Esteban Jaramillo, director of the Bank of Colombia and Minister of Finance, who presented a thoughtful paper on the economic rôle of women.

Another notable institution, the People's University, which was founded as a memorial to the Liberator Simón Bolívar on the occasion of the first centennial of his death, has made steady progress under the leadership of Señor Antonio José Gaitán. This institution offers popular short courses in bookkeeping, English, the Spanish language and literature, the history of civilization, the history of Colombia, criminal and civil law, social hygiene, the history of art, general biology, labor legislation, and philosophy.

The necessity of giving young men a more practical education has led the authorities of the old Colegio de San Bartolomé, a colonial seat of higher education which as early as 1622 was offering courses of university grade to the youth of Colombia, to establish a school of economic and juridical studies where modern methods of teaching and research will be put into practice. The course will be six years in length, the last one being devoted to practical work. The lecture hall will then be turned into a court room in order that the student may have actual experience in court procedure as judge, prosecutor, or lawyer for the defense. The young man who specializes in economics will have in his sixth year an opportunity to put into practice his knowledge of banking, commercial methods, life-insurance work, and similar subjects.

The intellectual life of women has been enriched by the establishment of the Women's Atheneum—curiously enough, at the initiative of a man, Dr. Carlos Delgado Morales—where the regular activities of the club will permit the women of the upper classes to enlarge the

range of their interests. Particularly significant are the new courses of university grade offered for the first time at the *colegio* directed by the Señoritas Casas Castañeda, notable educators. These courses will be given by such distinguished men as Dr. Miguel Abadía Méndez, a prominent jurist and former president of Colombia; Dr. Antonio Gómez Restrepo, a noted literary critic; and Drs. Francisco Rengifo and Jenaro Jiménez, authorities, respectively, in philosophy and Latin.

One of the most fundamental aspects of this cultural movement is the anti-illiteracy campaign carried out by the *Legión Femenina de Educación Popular* (Women's Legion for Popular Education). This organization came into being in Barranquilla on March 16, 1930, under the aegis of the *Alianza Unionista*. Chapters have now been founded in practically all the important cities of the Republic. The members of the legion pledge themselves to endeavor not only to teach children and adult illiterates how to read and write but also to inspire them with love for wholesome recreation, including sports, gardening, and good reading. The organization likewise functions through committees on medical inspection, school lunches, distribution of clothes to needy children, and school gardens. All the chapters must have these committees, at least, and others may be formed to meet the peculiar needs of each community. Several chapters have undertaken other activities such as series of lectures, many of which are broadcast regularly; Sunday courses for workers; dental, eye and ear, and prenatal clinics. The enthusiasm and efficiency with which the women have devoted themselves to their new tasks have been surprising even to themselves. "All of a sudden," commented a woman writer, "the women of Colombia, without knowing how it came to pass, have been assigned a most fundamental rôle, and all the doors that had been heretofore hermetically closed have now been opened wide to receive them."

The first important exhibition of Colombian art ever held in the country was inaugurated in August by the President, Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera. The event was a revelation not only because of the large number of painters and sculptors participating but also because of the high quality and the nationalistic tendency of many of the works shown. It is hoped that this exhibition will become an annual affair and that it will serve as an incentive to the creative genius of the people.

To coordinate and spur on the various cultural activities, Don Luis Enrique Osorio, journalist and former columnist on the staff of *El Tiempo*, has undertaken the publication of *Cultura Colombiana*, an 8-page weekly printed on inexpensive paper which has no objection to exhibiting its poverty and makes no apologies for its simple appearance. It prides itself—and justly so—on the dynamic idealism that breathes in every line.

In these many ways the new leaders of Colombia are endeavoring to reach every social class and give an opportunity for self-expression to all, whether young or old, low in the social scale or high in the upper levels of society. And we venture to prophesy that if they continue with the sincerity and earnestness with which they are now working they will do much toward the accomplishment of their ideal as expressed by one of the most enthusiastic supporters of the movement: "To define our personality as a nation, and to preserve the traditions which we have had and which we have put aside to follow those bearing a foreign stamp." A cultural movement inspired in Colombia's needs and eager to bring into action all the latent spiritual forces of a country so rich in cultural traditions is a task worthy of these times when every nation of America is struggling to develop a personality enabling it to make an effective contribution to world civilization.

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## SEEING LATIN AMERICAN PRODUCTS ENTER UNITED STATES INDUSTRIES

By WILLIAM A. REID

*Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union*

THROUGH the courtesy of a committee of business executives of the United States, headed by Mr. John L. Merrill, president of the Pan American Society and of All America Cables (Inc.), the delegates from Latin America attending the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference held in Washington last October were invited to participate in a tour of some of the leading industrial and commercial centers of the United States at the close of its sessions. It was desired particularly to augment the theoretical discussions of the conference by giving the Latin American delegates an opportunity to come into practical contact with modern industrial and commercial progress in the United States, and in many instances, to see the raw materials of their countries being converted into finished products in many types of manufacturing establishments.

The trip of more than 2,000 miles was made by train, motor bus, and boat; about a score of cities comprised the itinerary. City officials at various points welcomed the guests and honored them in various ways. The visitors were also received in several private homes and viewed a few football games at some of the famous universities of the country. The following pages describe a few aspects of modern-day industry in the United States in which the raw materials of Latin America play an important part.

When is a snow storm not a snow storm? Hat makers perhaps can answer this question better than any one else. Miniature "snow storms" rage in a great hat factory; to see small, almost invisible, particles of fur softly falling like snowflakes on a quiet winter's day is enough to arouse enthusiasm in those who have never before seen hat manufacturing on a large scale. Indeed, the almost magical changes that follow the arrival of fur at big hat factories of the United States form an interesting chapter in the part that commerce plays between raw materials and the consuming industries.

The man-made "snow storms" in the hat factory serve a useful purpose. By this means the multitudinous particles of fur, previously cut into minute lengths, drop onto a form—a revolving wire



LONG-HAIRED ALPACAS

The alpaca of Bolivia and Peru is one of the South American animals that supply the wool and fur required in the manufacture of hats.

screen in the shape of an enormous hat. Over this the "snow storm" places an even layer of fur, which is moistened by a gentle "rain." Not many minutes elapse before the form is completely fur covered. The whole is then ready to be received by another department of the factory, where the embryo hat is treated and removed from the supporting form. But many additional reductions and hand treatments are necessary before the product reaches the finishing stages.

"Whence comes this fur for the hats?" we ask the factory manager. Presently, we are ushered into the receiving department. Here are hundreds of bales of fur—fur from Argentine rabbits, Bolivian alpacas, Chilean vicuñas, fur or wool from various animals which once roamed the wind-swept hills of Magellan and Tierra del Fuego.

From these distant regions a single ship recently brought to a United States port a full and valuable cargo of fur and wool. The tale of fur-producing animals from far and near frontiers of Latin American nations is long and interesting.

There is another side of the same story; this is the return of the manufactured product to the region where the material originated. For instance, in Bolivia there is a constant demand for a certain style and form of hat made in the factory of which we write. "How is this demand to-day?" we inquire of an official of the establishment. He replies: "The Bolivian cholos for whom we produce these special hats will wear no other; the annual shipments to La Paz vary little in years of prosperity or depression—the market is regular."

Another hat liked all over Latin America is the large broad-brimmed yellow type, somewhat like those which cowboys and planters in the United States wear. Thousands of estancieros and hacendados wear these head coverings. Their countries send us fur; we return them hats.

In this changeful age one wonders why a progressive city like Baltimore possesses an almost changeless quarter of her vast expanse of port facilities. This peculiar section has a strong odor of coffee. Here for many years ships from Brazil, Colombia, and Central America have discharged their thousands of bags of coffee year in and year out. "Baltimore," said an official, "is one of the world's greatest coffee marts. Clippers and steamers have long used its wharves; the warehouses distribute the product to scores of other cities for redistribution." Business sentiment or other factors seem to prevent innovations; coffee men appear to like the import methods of yesterday and tenaciously cling to them.

Wilmington, Del., owes much of its progress to raw materials that come to its factories from South and Central America. Chilean nitrate, in particular, finds multiplied uses in the Wilmington region. Nitrate as it enters into the manufacture of explosives becomes an agent both of destruction and of construction. Hardly a new highway, a giant bridge or a great building could be carried to consummation without the aid of blasting or some other form of powder. Again, nitrate from Chile enters into the gunpowders that are demanded by votaries of sport all over the country. And fireworks for fiestas have their origin far away in the arid region of Chile where nitrate reigns supreme.

Pittsburgh steel mills suggest miniature volcanoes. Since they extend for miles and cover thousands of acres of land, the visitor finds that motor cars are necessary to carry him from section to section of the same plant; and there are numerous plants. Therefore, a single day affords only sufficient time to see a few outstanding activities.

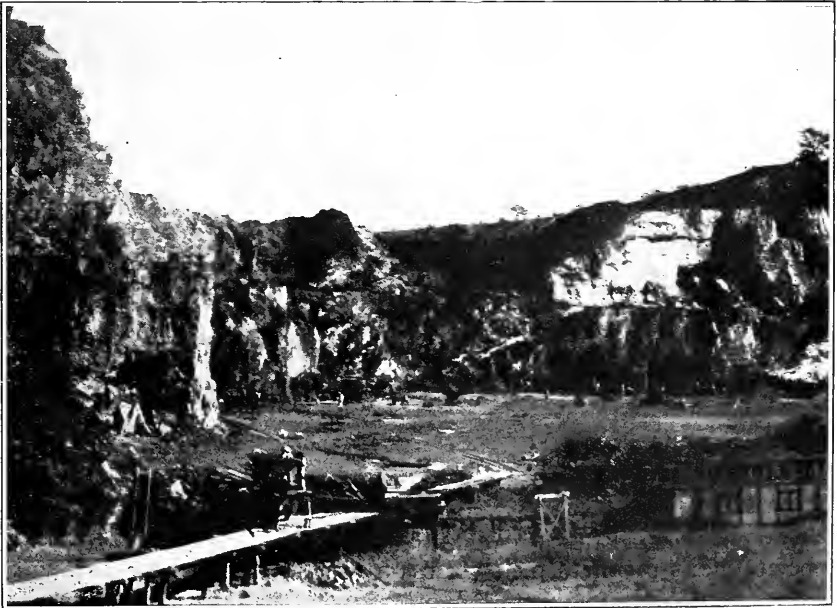




Courtesy of Anglo-Chilean Consolidated Nitrate Corporation

#### LOADING NITRATE ORE IN CHILE

Chilean nitrate enters extensively into the manufacture of explosives in the United States, besides being largely used as a fertilizer.



Photograph by Benjamin Leroy Miller

#### MORRA DA MINA MANGANESE MINE, BRAZIL

This is one of the sources of manganese ore, of which the United States imported \$1,484,000 worth from Brazil during 1930



Courtesy of Patino Mines

#### PANORAMIC VIEW OF TIN MINE AT CATAVI, BOLIVIA

Bolivia's tin makes possible the wide distribution of the preserved-food products of the United States, to mention but one of the innumerable uses for this metal

One of these is the dumping of Brazilian and Cuban manganese ore into giant white-hot caldrons of liquid iron. The manganese deposits in the United States are insufficient for its needs; consequently, for some years this necessary ingredient for steel manufacture has been drawn largely from the countries mentioned. The flowing streams of iron, into which manganese has been introduced to make hard and ductile steel, soon begin to lose their extreme heat as they follow their predestined channels. Later other departments shape the raw metal into many steel commodities. One of the most interesting branches of the plant receives an enormous cube of red-hot steel from which, within a short time, steel rails emerge at the opposite end of the building. Many machines take part in the process, all operated by power and all apparently of more than human intelligence. After the last machine delivers the completed rails, other devices carry them away and stack them uniformly. From these deposits giant magnets pick them up and transfer them to freight cars for dispatch to markets. Most of the Latin American countries obtain rails and other steel equipment from Pittsburgh plants. But without manganese these plants would be handicapped or their output rendered far less valuable for service.

At one of Pittsburgh's gigantic "food factories" we might paraphrase Kipling's famous "Boots, boots, boots," to "Cans, cans, cans"—tin cans by thousands—yes, millions—and they are moving in orderly procession here, there, and everywhere. "It is simply marvelous," said a Bolivian visitor, "to see my country's leading product being utilized to so great an extent." Bolivia, it will be remembered, is the only tin-producing country of the Americas. But the tin used in canning many varieties of foods in Pittsburgh does not end in the United States. The canned foods from this and other establishments, in Pittsburgh and elsewhere, are shipped to about 100 countries and dependencies throughout the world! So Bolivia's tin not only plays an important part in food distribution to millions of people in the United States but to multimillions in cities and solitudes all over the earth. In making Bolivia's tin available it is interesting to note that the commercial interests of three countries—Bolivia, Great Britain, and the United States—are working in close cooperation. The first-mentioned supplies the raw ore; this ore is smelted and turned into tin sheets in the second country; and the United States utilizes by far the greatest amount of the finished product.

The rise of Akron and the rise in rubber consumption during the past few decades have both been remarkable. Probably it would not be wrong to say that Amazonian rubber started Akron on the road to fame and fortune, for it was in this city that quantities of rubber arrived from the Amazon valley before plantation rubber became a factor in commerce. In earlier days, about 1911–12–13, "when rubber was king in Amazonia," some of Akron's pioneers were manufacturing buggy tires of rubber; most of the raw material came then from Brazilian and Bolivian jungles.

"Do you receive much Amazon rubber to-day in your factories?" a Brazilian visitor asked the manager of one of Akron's rubber companies. "We always use a certain quantity of Para rubber," said the host, "and perhaps we shall always want at least some of this product, because of its fine quality." Then the manager spoke of the operations of modern rubber plantations in Amazonia and of the progress of the Ford Co. plantation now well under way on the Tapajos River in Brazil. "Before many years," said this gentleman, "we shall probably be consuming much larger quantities of Tapajos rubber here in Akron, not alone for tires but for the constantly increasing number of everyday articles that are now made of rubber. Rubber floors and rubber streets are just now opening larger uses for this product of the tropics."

The progress of Akron rests not merely on the importance of rubber goods made for use on terra firma; far from it, since Akron builds for the air both planes and ships. And both of these rising industries demand other Latin American materials besides rubber. Ecuador's



TAPPING A RUBBER TREE

The United States continues to draw on Brazil in its ever-increasing demand for rubber.

balsa wood has found an increasing market "in the air." It is the lightest wood known and is of sufficient strength to serve well on both airplanes and airships. Thus Akron's industries and South America's rubber and balsa wood complement each other.

Naturally, the Nation's largest electrical plant—comprising many buildings covering hundreds of acres—could not fail to hold the attention of foreign visitors. Many products from Latin America and the world in general are made use of in such an establishment. But one of the subjects that claimed especial attention was the number of Latin American students and workers to be seen busily engaged in labor of one kind or another. Student courses attract foreigners and in recent years young South and Central Americans have found service and salaries in these great works. Moreover, there are usually under construction giant turbines or other machinery destined for industrial activity in the nations to the south.

Of particular interest on this occasion was the broadcasting of the voices of Latin American visitors. Each member of the group was given a few minutes in which to address radio listeners in his home country. In charge of the microphone was a young Latin American

whose familiarity with Spanish, Portuguese, and English makes him an invaluable and permanent employee of the company.

At a well-known industrial establishment in Rochester a sight unusual to the average person is presented by more than a hundred bars of silver, or about 3 tons. Yet this mass of one of the precious metals is only a week's supply for the factory; in other words, the silver is here to be converted into photosensitive materials. The process appears to be wanton destruction; even if silver is of lower than normal value we are shocked to see the big bars dissolved in nitric acid. Silver nitrate, it may be recalled, is sensitive to light; it loses its whiteness under the influence of sun's rays.

It is this basic chemical fact that makes photography possible. Speaking of the silver, the company tells us: "Into every bar a hole is drilled, a record number is punched. Chips from the drillings are tested by the department handling the silver. . . . If a trace of copper or iron were permitted, unchecked, to go into the manufacturing stream, endangering photographic effectiveness, later tests would discover and eliminate the results, but time and other materials would have been wasted." The manufacture

of photographic supplies is but one process utilizing silver which is supplied the

United States and other countries by Mexico, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, and other countries to the south of us.

Hartford is the home of the "Wasp" and "Hornet"—both names significant of speed and power on the wing. Within a few years small factories have evolved into giant establishments for producing these famous engines that are propelling planes and carrying passengers over land and sea. Naturally, visitors from Latin American countries feel more than ordinary interest in air transportation because it is to-day connecting many a wild and distant region of those newer nations with their civilized centers.



SILVER BULLION FROM A MEXICAN MINE

The silver mines of many of the Latin American republics supply metal for use in various industries of the United States, of which the manufacture of photographic supplies is but one.



OPEN-CUT WORKINGS, VANADIUM MINE, PERU

Peru is the principal source of supply of vanadium, which is of vast importance in the steel industry.



Courtesy of The Barber Asphalt Co.

A SECTION OF THE BERMUDEZ ASPHALT LAKE, VENEZUELA

A small section of the 1,000-acre deposit from which the vegetation has been cleared to permit the extraction of the asphalt.

An official opens certain chambers of one of the engines—he wants to show some of the finest pieces of mechanism that any land can boast. Here are the precisely working pistons, caps, meshes, all of the hardest steel. “What kind of steel?” a visitor asks. The engineer responds, “Vanadium.” “Ah,” continues the visitor, “you called on Peru to help harden your steel—to send you that valuable metal from the great heights of her mountains, and in changed form it helps man and machine to navigate the heights of space.” Vanadium is, indeed, coming into greater use not only in aviation but in many other industries.

“Your marvelous boulevards and endless highways,” said one of the visitors, “astonish me—they are far more extensive than I expected to see.” “But do you know,” replied one of the American members of the party, “that Venezuelan asphalt is imported in vast quantities to help build the streets and roads of which you speak?” Then ensued animated conversation regarding the world’s largest deposits of asphalt—those in eastern Venezuela and in Trinidad. Operations at both of these places not only supply the needs of the United States, but furnish much asphalt for export to Europe, the Far East, Australia, and to various American Republics. Asphalt has been a much-used commodity in the United States and its mining and importation represent enormous investments. Philadelphia is the most important port of this country in the receipt and distribution of asphalt cargo.

“Fifty-five years ago there was no telephone; but there was a telephone laboratory.” This sentence synthesizes a tendency of half a century ago—a tendency far more pronounced to-day—that long hours and years of research precede most great industrial enterprises. The business of the telephone has during the last decade brought American Republics into closer—some into almost instant—contact. Back of this intimate communication stand the Bell Laboratories where the visitor watches entranced as wizards unfold the unknown and the seemingly impossible before his eyes. What are the marvels? Too numerous to mention! But here are a few: 2-way television, dial impulses changed to oral instructions, repeaters that amplify currents, multichannel carriers, vacuum tubes that demonstrate the defraction of electrons—all associated with improving communications between peoples everywhere on the earth.

Thus as the delegates separated in New York to take their homeward way by train, boat, or airplane, they knew that distance was no longer a barrier between their countries.

## DIEGO RIVERA EXHIBITS IN NEW YORK

FRESCOES especially painted in New York by Diego Rivera heightened the keen interest in the one-man exhibition of the work of this great Mexican artist which opened December 23, 1931, at the Museum of Modern Art, New York. This exhibition is one more evidence of the increasing interest of the United States in Mexico and Mexican culture.

By bringing Rivera to New York to paint the frescoes, the museum made it possible for American art lovers and the interested public to see characteristic examples of the artist's work in his most famous medium. Since frescoes can not be shipped with safety, it has hitherto been impossible for Americans to see Rivera's most celebrated work without a journey to Mexico. Those he painted for the New York show are variations of some of his best-known Mexican subjects.

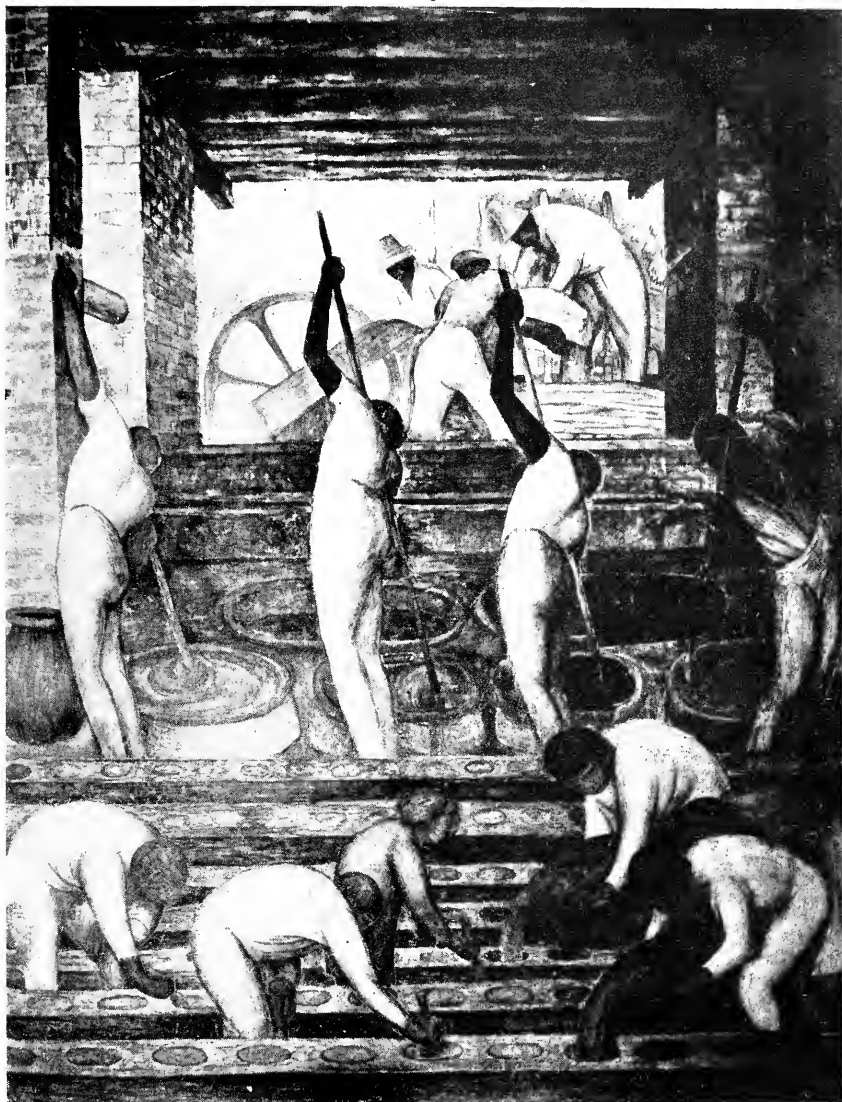
His frescoes in Mexico City are found on the four walls of two 3-storied patios in the Department of Education and in the Preparatory School near by; in the School of Agriculture at Chapingo, not far from the capital; and in the Palace of Cortés at Cuernavaca, for which they were generously commissioned by the late Dwight W. Morrow. Rivera's work on a series in the National Palace, Mexico City, was interrupted by his journey to the United States. In *Idols Behind Altars* Anita Brenner says of Rivera's frescoes:

No lyric, no dramatic urge informalizes this cerebral world. Rivera builds a house accessible to the mind. Upon the abstract structure conceived in æsthetic terms he pours a cast of philosophic ideas. The human beings and their courses that he represents are chosen for a symbolic purpose. He does not garble their textures, but to sensual beauties he arrives last, curiously enough an exception to the native habit of seeing the physical object first.

The fact that it was the first time, so far as is known, that a museum had brought a great artist to a city to do special work on such a large scale for a single exhibition aroused special interest and focused attention on the frescoes, especially in view of the reputation of the artist for his accomplishments in this medium not only at home but in the Stock Exchange and in the California Academy of Fine Arts, San Francisco, where he completed frescoes last year.

The frescoes painted especially for the New York show are hung in the museum's largest gallery, the focal point and climax of the exhibition. They illustrate Rivera's characteristic vitality of design, his clarity, and his feeling for perspective. Viewing them, one can understand why the artist is credited with revitalizing painting in this medium, and why he is considered the greatest living master of fresco painting. His is the superior craftsmanship which earned fame for the exponents of that technique of the Italian Renaissance, and he is





Courtesy of Katherine Anne Porter

#### WORKERS IN METAL

This picturization of a native industry is a detail of the frescoes in the Ministry of Education in Mexico, one of the series that won international recognition for Rivera.

probably more responsible than any other artist since that time for restoring this art to the high level of Michelangelo's glamorous days.

The exhibition is not only interesting æsthetically but it is extremely valuable to students of design, since with the finished pictures are hung the cartoons made for them by the artist.

Rivera paints in the true fresco style, using ground earth colors, mainly the oxides of manganese and iron, on wet plaster. The color



Courtesy of the Museum of Modern Art

PORTRAIT OF MME. CAROLINE DURIEUX, BY RIVERA

incorporated in the dried plaster gives to the work a unique surface texture and a remarkably enduring quality. Lime of the exact composition needed by the artist could not be obtained in the United States, and it was therefore necessary to send to Mexico for material.

The frescoes Rivera painted for the New York exhibition are about 5 by 8 feet and can not be transported without danger of cracking. For his work in this country, Rivera has evolved a method of painting on plaster which has been incased in steel and wire frames. When completed and in place, the picture looks as if painted on the wall, but it can be removed at will. This method is considered ideal for frescoes in the United States, where most buildings stand but a



Courtesy of the Museum of Modern Art

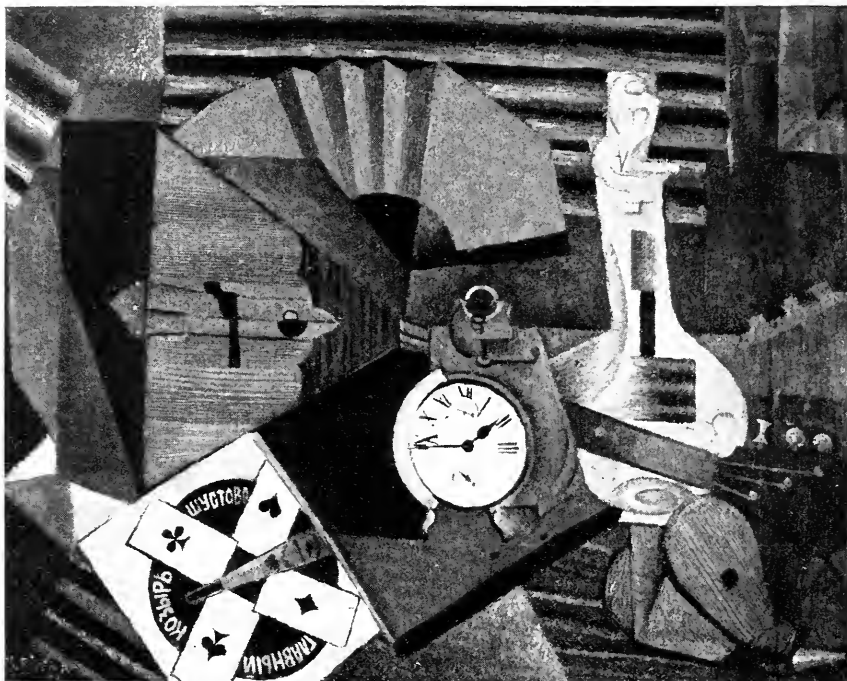
#### THE CANOE

Rivera's interpretation of one of the flower-decorated boats on the canals of the floating gardens of Xochimilco near Mexico City.

short time compared with structures which house such world-famous examples as, for instance, those in the Sistine Chapel, St. Peter's.

Diego Rivera was born December 8, 1886, in the Mexican mining town of Guanajuato. His grandfather had been chief of military administration under Juárez. His father was a consultant chemist, school-teacher, and editor of a small paper.

When 6 years old he was taken by his family to Mexico City, where he began to draw under the direction of José Guadalupe Posada.



Courtesy of the Museum of Modern Art

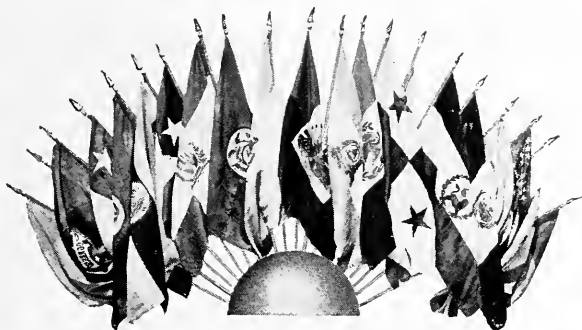
#### THE AWAKENER, BY RIVERA

A canvas of Russian inspiration exhibited through the courtesy of Señora Guadalupe Marín de Cuesta, Mexico City.

In 1898 he entered the studio of an academic painter, Felix Para. In 1907 he worked under Eduardo Chicharro in Madrid. Dissatisfied there, he went to Paris, where his interest in painting united with a growing interest in politics, shown also in his later journey to Moscow. His work was influenced by Cézanne, Picasso, Renoir, and Henri Rousseau. He returned to Mexico in 1910, but went again to Paris the next year. His interest in painting as an important factor in the portrayal of the growth of a people or a civilization turned his attention to a medium greater in scope and more lasting than oil—that of fresco. It was not until 1918, however, that he began experimenting in this medium. In the meantime he had been in Italy, where he had seen great examples of this art.

In addition to the frescoes, the exhibition at the Museum of Modern Art includes 50 oils, 40 drawings, and water colors, loaned by Mexican, American, and European collectors and by American museums. The show covers the artist's work from 1902 to the present and will continue through January.

Mr. Alfred H. Barr, jr., is director of the Museum, and Mr. Jere Abbott, Associate Director.



## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Argentine Committee on Bibliography.*—The Pan American Union has been informed through the Ambassador of Argentina that his Government has appointed its National Technical Cooperating Committee on Bibliography of the Pan American Union. Dr. Juan Pablo Echagüe, president of the Argentine Commission for the Protection of Public Libraries, is chairman, and the other members are Carlos F. Melo, Leopoldo Lugones, Rómulo Zabala, and Felix Carrié.

*Newspaper and magazine list.*—The library has prepared the sixth number of its bibliographic series under the title of *Catalogue of newspapers and magazines in the Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union* (112 pages, mimeographed). This is a revised edition of a similar catalogue prepared in March, 1929, and is a complete record of the newspapers and magazines in the library, including not only the periodicals received currently but those for which only one or two volumes or other short runs are on file. A limited number of these catalogues is available for distribution to libraries.

*Reading lists.*—In response to some of the 301 requests for information received from students and specialists in Latin American affairs, the library prepared brief typewritten reading lists of books on: The Panama Congress of 1826; the Nicaraguan Canal; the Life of Benito Pablo Juárez; the Jesuits in Paraguay; and Stock Exchanges in Latin America. Copies of these may be had upon application.

*Accessions.*—Since September 1 the library has added 920 volumes and pamphlets to its shelves; of these 367 were received during the past month. A few selected titles are as follows:

*Valores espirituales de la raza indígena; su educación desde los tiempos precortesianos hasta nuestros días.* Por Antonio Gutiérrez Oliveros. México, Talleres Gráficos de la Nación, 1929. 31 p. 8°.

*Modern South America;* a comprehensive survey based on 20 years of intimate connection with the people, places, governments, industries, commerce, and changing conditions of the growing nations of South America. By C. W. Dornville Fife. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Company [1931?]. 320 p. illus. 8°.

*The struggle for South America; economy and ideology.* By J. F. Normano. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1931. 294 p. 8°.

*Vida, causas y efectos de la evolución artística argentina.* Los últimos 30 años. Por Carlos P. Ripamonte. Buenos Aires, M. Gleizer, editor, 1930. 249 p. 8°.

*Fábulas.* 2ª ed. Por Luis Andrés Zúñiga. Tegueigalpa, Tipografía Nacional, 1931. 204 p. 12°.

*Respuesta a las piedras: poesía.* Por Luis Barrios Cruz. Caracas, Editorial "Elite" [1931]. 173 p. 8°.

*Les résultats de la première conférence de codification du droit international; communication à l'Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques (séance du 15 novembre 1930).* Par Alejandro Álvarez. Paris, Librairie Félix Alcan, 1931. 36 p. 8°.

*La codification du droit international; exposé des motifs et projet de déclaration sur les données fondamentales et les grands principes du droit international de l'avenir présenté à l'Institut de Droit International, à l'International Law Association, à l'Union Juridique Internationale et à l'Académie Diplomatique Internationale.* Par Alejandro Álvarez. Paris, Les Éditions Internationales, 1931. 60 p. 8°.

*A tentative bibliography of the belles-lettres of Porto Rico.* By Guillermo Rivera. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1931. 61 p. 8°.

*Principios de régimen municipal.* Por Rafael Bielsa. Buenos Aires, J. Lajouane & Cía., editores, 1930. 231 p. 8°.

*Como se conta a historia de Colombo, de Cabral, da América e do Brasil.* Por J. M. Monteiro. Rio de Janeiro, Typ. da "Medicamenta," 1931. 146 p. 8°.

*José de la Luz y Caballero como educador.* Por José Cipriano de la Luz y Caballero. Habana, Cultural, S. A., 1931. 310 p. 12°. (Colección de libros cubanos. Director: Fernando Ortiz. Vol. XXVII.)

*Paraguay, its cultural heritage, social conditions, and educational problems.* By Arthur Elwood Elliott. New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications, 1931. 210 p. plates. 8°.

*Historia de la organización constitucional.* Por Juan A. González Calderón. Buenos Aires, A. Lajouane & Cía., editores, 1930. 320 p. 8°.

*Antología de la poesía femenina argentina, con referencias biográficas y bibliográficas.* Seleccionada y ordenada por José Carlos Maubé y Adolfo Capdevielle (h.). Prólogo de Rosa Bazán de Cámara. Carátula y ex-libris de Sara Capdevielle. Buenos Aires, Impresores Ferrari Hnos., 1930. 509 p. 8°.

*Del tiempo de ñaupa (folklore norteno).* Por Rafael Cano. Buenos Aires, Talleres Gráficos Argentinos L. J. Rosso, 1930. 475 p. 8°.

*Zoraya, una vida de amor y santidad.* Por Daniel Samper Ortega. Bogotá, Sociedad Editora de Obras Nacionales, 1931. 303 p. 8°.

During the past month the library has received the following magazines for the first time:

*Agricultor Moderno* (Revista de Agricultura, Pecuaria e Avicultura), Rua Barão de Itapetininga, 18, São Paulo, Brazil. (M.) Anno 1, No. 1, maio 1931. 46 p. illus. 7½ x 10½ inches.

*Nosotras* (panorama feminista internacional), Valparaíso, Chile, Casilla 3357. Año 1, No. 1, agosto, 1931. (M.) 8 p. illus. 10½ x 14¾ inches.

*Revista del Museo Nacional de Guatemala* (Sección de Arqueología), Guatemala. No. 1, 1931. 16 p. illus. 6¾ x 10¼ inches.

*Boletín de la Sociedad Bolivariana de Panamá*, Imprenta Nacional, Panamá. (Trimestral.) Año 1, No. 1, octubre de 1931. 111 p. 6 x 9 inches.

*Boletín de la Biblioteca de la Universidad Central del Ecuador*, Quito. (Q.) [Vol. 1], No. 1, enero-marzo de 1931. 69 p. 7 x 10½ inches.

*Boletín de Estadística y Jurisprudencia* (Prefectura General de Policía), Imprenta y Encuadernación de la Policía, Buenos Aires, Argentina. (Trimestral.) Año 18, No. 73, primer trimestre de 1931. 7 x 10½ inches.

*The Mexico City Post*, México, D. F. (W.) Vol. 1, No. 1, November 14, 1931. 8 p. illus. 18 x 22 inches.

*Ageus* (Revista de Ciencias y Arte), San Salvador, El Salvador (órgano oficial de la Asociación General de Estudiantes Universitarios Salvadoreños). (Bi-mo.) Año 1. No. 2, septiembre-octubre, 1931. 58 p. illus. 9½ x 13 inches.

*Cultura Colombiana*, Luis Enrique Osorio, Director, Apartado 852, Bogotá, Colombia. (W.) [Vol. 1], agosto 6 de 1931. 8 p. illus. 13¾ x 20 inches.

*Revista de Educación* (Dirección de Educación Pública de Nariño), Pasto, Colombia. Año 1. Nos. 1-3, marzo de 1931. (Bi-mo.) 88 p. 6½ x 9½ inches.

*Cuadernos de Economía* (mensuario de cuestiones sociales, económicas, financieras, estadísticas), San Salvador, Salvador. Vol. 1, No. 1, octubre de 1931. 16 p. 10 x 14¼ inches.

*Revista Textil* (Textil Zeitschrift-Textil Magazine), São Paulo (M.) [Spinning, weaving, knitting, dyeing.] Anno 8, No. 1, September, 1931. 78 p. illus. 9 x 12 inches.

*Ariel* (publicado por la Confederación de Profesores de Chile), Casilla 4542, Santiago, Chile. (Quincenal.) Año 1, No. 1, 15 de octubre de 1931. 8 p. illus. 11 x 15 inches.

*Boletín General de Estadística* (órgano trimestral de la Dirección General del Ramo). Quito, Ministerio de Gobierno y Estadística. Año 1, No. 1, mayo de 1931. 80 p. 9 x 13 inches.

*El Constructor* (órgano mensual de la Escuela de Artes y Oficios), Apartado 936, Panamá. Año 1, No. 3, noviembre de 1931. 36 p. illus. 8¼ x 11½ inches.

*Revista del Ejército, Marina y Aeronáutica* (órgano del Ministerio de Guerra y Marina), Caracas, Venezuela. Año 1, No. 4, 31 de octubre de 1931. 109 p. illus. 6 x 9 inches.

*Heraldo Comercial* (bajo el patrocinio de la "Federación del Comercio," Carrera 7a, No. 337, Bogotá, Colombia, Año 1, No. 1, 10 de noviembre de 1931. (Revista quincenal ilustrada.) 32 p. illus. 9½ x 12¾ inches.



# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

## INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS

The present economic situation has made all the nations of the world more conscious of the importance of commercial factors in international relations.

Indicative of this tendency are two conventions subscribed to by CHILE and PERU in Lima on June 18, 1931, whereby natural fertilizers and fresh fruits from either country are exempt from Government and municipal levies and from import duties, respectively, in the other.

Significant, too, is the executive agreement between CHILE and the UNITED STATES, signed on September 28, 1931, under which the two countries agree to accord to the commerce of each other unconditional most-favored-nation treatment: The United States will extend to the commerce of Chile the same advantages (customs duties and other fiscal imposts, as well as import licenses and other measures) which it gives to any other country, with the exception of the special treatment accorded to its own outlying possessions, to Cuba, and to the Panama Canal Zone. Reciprocally, Chile concedes to the commerce of the United States most-favored-nation treatment, including the reduced tariffs applied to French merchandise by virtue of the *modus vivendi* of May 22, 1931, between Chile and France. The agreement, which may be terminated by either country on 15 days' notice, presupposes the willingness of the two Governments to enter into a commercial treaty at an appropriate time in the future. Chile and the United States have had no such treaty since 1850, when the Convention of Peace, Amity, Commerce and Navigation concluded between the two countries in 1832 was terminated by the Government of Chile.

At a meeting of the Governing Board of the American Institute of International Law, held in Washington, October 29-31, 1931, Miss Doris Stevens, chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women, and Prof. Jesse S. Reeves, of the University of Michigan, a member of the Pan American Commission of Jurists for the Codification of International Law, were nominated for membership in the institute to fill the vacancies caused by the election of the Hon. Elihu Root to the honorary presidency of the institute and the death of former Secretary of State Robert Lansing.

The American Institute of International Law, organized October 12, 1912, and inaugurated December 29, 1915, during the second Pan



American Scientific Congress, was founded to coordinate, through a central organization in Washington and cooperating associations in all the American Republics, the efforts of American jurists and publicists for the development and codification of international law and the generalization of its principles. Each Republic of America has an affiliated society which appoints the national members of the institute. In BOLIVIA, for example, it is the Bolivian Society of International Law, which met on September 21, 1931, and elected Señores Daniel Sánchez Bustamante, Claudio Pinilla, Alberto Gutiérrez, Julio Gutiérrez, and David Alvéstegui as the representatives of that country.

The names of Miss Stevens and Professor Reeves will be presented to the institute for election at the next meeting in Buenos Aires just prior to the Seventh International Conference of American States, to be held in Montevideo in December, 1931. A committee was appointed by the governing board to represent the institute during the conference and furnish any information or advice for which it may be asked; its members are Dr. Alejandro Álvarez, Chile; Dr. Luis Anderson, Costa Rica; Dr. Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante y Sirvén, Cuba; Dr. Víctor M. Maúrtua, Peru; and Dr. James Brown Scott and Miss Doris Stevens, United States.

The Pan American Union has received word from the Mexican Government that the meeting of the Seventh American Scientific Congress has been postponed from February, 1932, until November, 1933. This decision was reached because of present world conditions, which make it impossible for many nations to send special representatives to the sessions.

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## AGRICULTURE

One of the most important factors in the development of national resources is that of adequately financing both large and small scale agricultural activities. Of the 21 nations members of the Pan American Union, many, including Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Mexico, Paraguay, and Venezuela, have established by law national banks for that especial purpose, and others have private or cooperative organizations which include agricultural financing of some sort among their functions.

The newest national agricultural bank is that of PERU, established by decree law No. 7273 issued by the National Council of Government on August 16, 1931. It was created to give to national agriculture the long-term financial assistance which private banks were inherently unable to offer. Its authorized capital is 20,000,000 soles gold, a sum which may be increased by the directors with the consent of the Government. Of this amount the Government will supply 5,000,000 soles in cash and 10,000,000 soles in Class C securities of the Central

Reserve Bank (see BULLETIN for December, 1931, p. 1268), and the remaining 5,000,000 soles will be issued in 8 per cent bonds to the public. The chief functions of the bank are to arrange for farmers and cattle raisers loans whose security shall be crops, stock, and equipment, and to issue agricultural bonds, although it is also authorized to carry on such other general banking operations as buying and selling drafts and checks payable abroad and dealing in futures, whenever such actions may be necessary to protect the bank and its clients or to further their interests. The loans to farmers and cattle raisers may include not only the money necessary for preparing the soil, sowing, and harvesting the crop, but also a sufficient amount for the subsistence of a man and his family, rental if he does not own the land he cultivates, assessments and taxes, and insurance. Only in exceptional cases will loans be issued for more than 50 per cent of the estimated value of the crops or stock. The bank may, if the directors deem it wise, require that additional security be pledged, in the form of chattel or real estate mortgages. The terms on which advance loans may be made vary in length; for crops, the maximum period is two years; for livestock, five years; and for equipment, three years.

The value to a country of providing such banking facilities may be seen from the following quotation, taken from the introduction to the third annual report of the board of directors of the Agricultural and Stock Raising Bank of VENEZUELA for the fiscal year July 1, 1930-June 30, 1931:

It may safely be said that there is no corner of the country devoted to our fundamental industries where it (the bank) has not penetrated with its loans to stimulate and sustain those who have dedicated themselves to such activities. Our workers have seen that the Republic is concerned for their well-being; many have had the radius of their activities increased and new and profitable possibilities opened to them; others have found release from burdensome interest charges and the possible tragedy of losing their property at the expiration of a given period, prospects which made their work discouraging and futile; and many have been literally saved from ruin.

But our laborers are not the only ones benefited by the bank, for its influence extends directly or indirectly to other groups: to the national treasury, which receives twice a year interest on 50,000,000 bolívares, and has seen its income from stamp and registry taxes increase by the putting into circulation of 51,592,700 bolívares; to the treasuries of the individual States, whose income from stamped paper has been proportionately increased; to business in general, which has been stimulated in every department; to the entire country, in a word, which has increased in wealth and found in these loans a remedy for the present world crisis.

. . . The bank has taken favorable action on 1,086 requests for credit, granting loans totaling 51,592,700 bolívares (this amount includes loans from the capital supplied by the nation, from amortization payments, and from repayment of some loans in full), for its original capital of 30,000,000 bolívares was increased in 1929 to 50,000,000 bolívares. . . . Of the total amount granted in loans, 40,606,700 bolívares were loaned to farmers and 10,986,000 bolívares to stock-raisers. . . . The bank has on hand at present 1,777,000 bolívares with which

to attend to the petitions pending, which total 41,661,300 bolívars; action on 199 of these, for 12,729,800 bolívars, has been decided. The bank has paid to the nation 2,958,806 bolívars in interest, and notwithstanding this expenditure, . . . and the fact that it is inherently a nonprofit-making institution, it has to-day liquid assets of 977,785 bolívars.

Coincident with the establishment of the Agricultural Bank of PERU was the creation of the Board of Agricultural Promotion in the same country by a law issued by the National Council of Government also on August 16, 1931. The board was created in recognition of the need for some body whose organization and functions should enable it to attend to the credit requirements of agriculture and stock raising. It is composed of the board of directors of the Agricultural Bank, a delegate from the National Stock Raisers' Society, one delegate each from the societies representing the agricultural or stock-raising interests in Chiclayo, Arequipa, Cuzco, and Iquitos, the directors of the bureaus of agriculture, stock raising, and irrigation of the Ministry of Promotion, and the director of the School of Agriculture. The duties of the board include the main functions of direct and indirect agricultural financing.

Cooperation in agricultural industries is becoming increasingly important, as is evidenced by the growing number of organizations for mutual action in that field. One has recently been organized in Bolivia, another in Cuba.

The Chamber of Industrial Promotion was changed in BOLIVIA on September 26, 1931, to a cooperative movement between industrialists and agriculturists of the nation. The union is the result of a unanimous resolution passed at the meeting of the last National Agricultural Congress. It was felt that, as the national industries represent an investment of 70,000,000 bolivianos and the agricultural and stock-raising industries the even greater investment of 100,000,000 bolivianos, an association representing both interests would be particularly timely. The purposes of the chamber are both offensive and defensive, as may be seen from the following aims taken from the statutes: To protect by every legal means national industrial and agricultural activities; to promote friendly relations between capital and labor, creating to that end such tribunals of conciliation and arbitration as may be necessary; to encourage industrial and agricultural education by establishing trade schools, agricultural schools, and experiment stations, publishing periodicals, and organizing fairs and expositions; to prevent suits or other legal action between members; to urge that all manufactured articles and products of agricultural or stock-raising character show clearly their Bolivian origin; to advertise Bolivian products abroad in communications with similar chambers and in periodicals; and to propose and found general cooperative organizations (such as insurance, savings, pension, and mutual aid) for both members and their workmen.

The organization in CUBA was founded especially to further the interests of fruit growers and truck gardeners. More than 70 such planters met on October 21, 1931, in the Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor to exchange opinions on the subject and to form a cooperative society. This meeting was held in accordance with a suggestion made them by Señor Celso Cuéllar del Río, a national senator who is also a grower; in it he said the studies he has made of the subject have convinced him that fruit and vegetable exports from Cuba are not as important as they should be to-day, but with the proper organization such products would soon become the second most important export of the island. It may be added that fresh lima beans from Cuba are now a delicacy on sale in markets of the eastern United States, at least. While cooperative action on the part of the growers can not alter the tariff and quarantine restrictions of importing countries, it can correct two of the handicaps under which Cuban produce suffers—poor selection and packing of the products, and the lack of organization for the adequate distribution of the products in the country of consumption. A tentative organization was established under the presidency of Señor Eusebio Dardet, and the group plans to meet in the near future for final organization and intensive action.

Another aspect of agricultural activities was stressed at the meeting of the Ninth Conference of Veterinary Inspectors held in October in Durazno, URUGUAY, to discuss problems of animal health and sanitation in relation to the community and the direct and indirect effects of sanitary control measures. The conference laid special emphasis on preventive rather than curative measures, and at the closing session passed recommendations whose subjects included: Dairy inspection and the importance of municipal cooperation in the undertaking; the prevention and control of specified cattle and other livestock diseases, with the desirability of campaigning for a wider knowledge of the most efficacious and least costly remedies; the establishment of portable laboratories to serve especially those establishments authorized to sell inspected milk; the importance of further studies in the degree and period of immunity of vaccines and in new methods of introduction; a bill prohibiting the introduction or breeding of Zebu cattle in Uruguay; the establishment in the National Cold Storage Plant of a laboratory for research in cold-storage methods; the advisability of a bee quarantine, to prevent the introduction of bee diseases into the country; and the desirability of the Bureau of Veterinary Inspection being represented at the coming Cold Storage Congress, Buenos Aires.

In view of the resolution recommending the exclusion of Zebu cattle from the country, it is interesting to note that on October 6, 1931, the Ministry of Industries of COLOMBIA issued a decree forbidding the importation of Zebu sires into the Republic on the ground that Zebu stock weakened rather than improved the Colombian breeds of cattle.

## INDUSTRY

The Latin American Republics are essentially agricultural or mining countries, manufacturing representing only a small portion of their economic life. For some years, nevertheless, there has been a trend toward industrialization in South and Central America. Natural resources, available capital, and other economic considerations have made this tendency more pronounced in some countries than in others; in all, however, manufacturing has never failed to create interest, the Governments and commercial associations in the various republics having lent every possible encouragement to this movement. The press has also played an important rôle in stimulating this desire for more economic self-sufficiency. Editorial articles advocating the establishment of industries on the basis of national raw materials are common, and the inauguration of a new industrial plant, frequently the occasion of a formal ceremony attended by the President of the Republic and his cabinet, is always the object of considerable publicity in the local papers.

The fact that the prices of the principal Latin American export commodities—such as Brazilian coffee, Bolivian tin, Cuban sugar, and Chilean nitrates—have been for some time at extremely low levels has no doubt been an influential factor in the movement for diversification in economic undertakings as a means of alleviating conditions brought about in part, at least, by dependency upon one or a few products. The decline in the export of the basic agricultural and mineral commodities in which Latin America specializes has made it necessary for the countries to reduce their imports of manufactured commodities—since exports in the long run must pay for imports—and brought to the fore national industries which can supply substitutes for foreign merchandise. Several of the Latin American Governments have raised the import duties on goods manufactured on a small scale at home, and in some cases prohibited their importation temporarily. Consequently many new industries have been established in Latin America during the last two years which are turning out for local consumption such merchandise as was formerly brought from abroad.

This change in the national economic structure, now in the process of evolution, is perhaps most striking in the case of CUBA. For many years the sugar industry has been the controlling factor in practically every commercial and industrial activity in Cuba. It is easy to realize how a progressive decline in the price of sugar since 1924 has made drastic economic adjustments necessary. The Cubans as a nation have been facing squarely this decline of their major industry by entering into a well-conceived plan of diversification of agriculture

(see page 60) and the development of manufacturing industries to produce those articles which they had been importing from other countries with the proceeds of their principal cash product. The result has been that Cuba is not only now raising increasing amounts of such foodstuffs as potatoes, miscellaneous vegetables, corn, poultry, and fruits, but has begun to manufacture an astonishingly varied lot of necessities and even minor luxuries. Among these may be cited dried beef, canned tomatoes and fruits, vegetable fats, shoes and miscellaneous leather goods, men's and women's clothing, furniture, construction materials of all kinds, soap, ink, paints, and paper and paper products.

By scanning the Latin American daily press one can gather an idea of how the movement progresses in various countries. For example, the newspapers for September and October, 1931, bring reports of a number of exhibitions of national products. The COLOMBIAN National Industrial Exposition, containing exhibits from all the departments of the Republic, was inaugurated at Bogota by President Olaya Herrera on September 12, 1931. The exposition was held under the auspices of the National Federation of Manufacturers and Producers (*Federación Nacional de Fabricantes y Productores*), an association formed about a year ago to seek the reorganization of agriculture and industry in Colombia in order to alleviate the economic crisis which menaced the country.

Another exposition which has created a great deal of interest is the First Mexican Traveling Exposition of National Products, organized under the direction of Señor Alfredo Garrido Alfaro. The "Train of Progress," as the exposition is generally known in MEXICO, was organized to acquaint the consuming public with articles produced within the country, thereby increasing the demand for them and giving a new stimulus to national industries. The train left Mexico City on September 25, 1931, for a six months' tour of the country, during which period it will travel 8,000 miles and visit 38 important cities. It is made up of 19 steel cars and a Pullman, the 19 cars including a diner and a special car devoted to an exhibit of the Ministry of Communications which shows the work of the National Highway Commission, to be used as a basis for an intensive campaign to promote tourist travel over Mexico's new roads. During the official inauguration of the exposition at the Buenavista Central Railroad Station in Mexico City on September 12, the President of the Republic, after congratulating the organizers and exhibitors, offered the use of one of the steamships of the National Lines, so that at the end of the tour the exhibits can be sent to other Latin American Republics.

Another exposition held during the months of September and October was the PERUVIAN Floating Sample Fair installed aboard

the S. S. *Urubamba* of the Peruvian Steamship Co. Besides the space devoted to Peruvian industries, the fair also contained exhibits of the Ministries of Promotion and Foreign Affairs, the Peruvian Touring Club, the Museum of Archeology, the vocational training school of Lima and the National Association of Journalists. There were also aboard a native orchestra and a theatrical company, whose programs were based on the folklore of Peru. The fair left Callao on September 29, and after stopping at all the northern Peruvian ports, arrived at Guayaquil, Ecuador, on October 7 for a three-day stay, leaving October 10 for Panama.

Peruvian industries have been developing rapidly during the last few years. Aside from copper and petroleum refining, the principal industries are the manufacture of textiles, foods, tobacco, various beverages, bottles, soap, lard, shoes, cement, and flour, and the tanning of hides. Since Peru is favorably placed in regard to raw materials and power supply and has a domestic market able to consume all that the manufacturing industries of the country can produce for some time, there is no reason why the present industrial trend should not become even more pronounced. At the same time that the Peruvian Floating Exposition visited ECUADOR, Guayaquil was holding its Eighth International Sample Fair. The principal Ecuadorean industries are the manufacture of cotton, wool, sisal fiber, shoes, flour, cigars and cigarettes, sugar, alcoholic beverages, straw hats, soap and candles, furniture, soft drinks and the refining of petroleum into gasoline, kerosene and gas oil. In the exposition the stands devoted to Ecuadorean food products, shoes, hosiery, and furniture attracted special attention.

According to press dispatches three hundred skilled workmen are employed in a factory at Santiago de CHILE making street cars. While the motors and some metal parts are imported, the rest of the car is made at the shop from national products, and the total cost of a car when completed is reported to be one half the cost of an imported one. This is but one of the new industries that are being established in Chile to take advantage of the abundant raw materials and power resources, favorable climate, and adaptability to machine production shown by the laboring classes. No detailed data on manufacturing in Chile will probably be available until the results of the industrial census now being made are published. The number of industrial establishments in 1926 was placed at 7,573; they employed 84,872 workers and had an annual pay roll of 214,803,042 pesos.

The Uruguayan press announces the opening of a national industrial exposition on December 1, 1931. URUGUAY is primarily an agricultural and livestock-raising country; consequently its leading manufacturing industries are closely linked with these two great sources of national wealth. Meat packing is perhaps the most important,

there being at present four large freezing establishments and a number of smaller ones turning out jerked beef, canned meats, and other animal products. Other Uruguayan industries derived from cattle and sheep raising are tanning and the manufacture of shoes, leather goods, and woolen textiles. Uruguayan factories are also producing cement, bricks, tiles, flour, enamel wares, cotton textiles, soap, furniture, glass, paper, beverages, matches, sugar, and cigarettes. A new cooperative textile society has been formed in Montevideo under the name *Fábrica Uruguaya de Tejidos, Sociedad Anónima Cooperativa*; its provisional board of directors was elected on September 23, 1931. The General Motors Corporation has maintained an assembly plant in Montevideo since 1926. The press announces that one of the motor cars assembled at the Uruguayan branch has been awarded a gold medal in New York by the engineers of the parent company because of the high quality of the workmanship.

A report, dated October 9, 1931, by Assistant Trade Commissioner J. Winsor Ives, of the United States Department of Commerce, contains interesting information on BRAZIL's paper industry. The best indication of the unusual growth of this industry during the last decade is afforded by a comparison of figures. At the close of 1919 there were only eight paper mills in operation, representing a total capital investment of something in the neighborhood of 25,000 contos (about \$6,500,000), while according to figures compiled at the close of 1929 there were in that year 18 mills in operation with an aggregate capital of 200,000 contos, that is, about \$24,000,000. Ten of the eighteen paper mills are located in the State of Sao Paulo, and it is estimated that they are responsible for about 75 per cent of the country's total paper production, which in 1929 amounted to 70,000 metric tons. Estimates supplied by the Brazilian paper industry indicate that the country's 18 mills curtailed their production in 1930 approximately 30 per cent as compared with 1929.

Up to five years ago the production of Brazilian mills was restricted almost entirely to wrapping and other low grade papers. Through the adoption of modern machinery and improved production methods, as well as by the employment of experienced technicians, unusual progress has been made during recent years toward bettering quality and variety in the output of these establishments. At the present time good quality bond, glazed, and writing papers of Brazilian manufacture are sold in the market in direct competition with similar products of foreign origin. While it is true that the domestic industry has not yet developed to a point where it can supply a wide enough range of papers to satisfy either the quantity or quality demands of the market, there is a strong indication that the next five years will see a further expansion in the industry through Govern-



ment aid in the form of adequate tariff protection and encouragement of the development of domestic pulp resources.

At the present time Brazil's paper industry is dependent almost entirely upon foreign sources of supply for pulp, the development of a national pulp industry having been deterred principally by high costs of transportation, and, to a lesser degree, by lack of sufficient capital to exploit the industry on a commercially practicable scale. Surveys made during recent years by Brazilians and various foreign foresters and paper technicians indicate that the country not only possesses a wide enough variety of wood and other vegetable matter to provide pulp suitable for the manufacture of paper of practically all classes, but that the potential resources of these raw materials would, if exploited, prove adequate to supply the demands of the domestic paper industry for an indeterminate period and at the same time leave a large surplus available for exportation to other pulp-consuming markets in South America.

The manufacturing industries already occupy an important position in the economic life of Brazil. The textile industry, which is considered the most important, consists of 354 factories, with an approximate capital of \$77,000,000. The latest official census taken in Brazil was that of 1920; the data then obtained showed that there were at that time over 13,000 industrial establishments in Brazil with a capital of approximately 2,000,000 contos (conto then equalled approximately \$210), employing 275,512 workmen and having an annual output of products valued at nearly 3,000,000 contos. Since then several industries have progressed rapidly, principally textiles, shoes, hats, furniture, beverages, tobacco, preserved foodstuffs, chinaware, and glass.

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## LABOR

As a result of action taken during the special sessions of the Congress of MEXICO convened on July 25, 1929, for the purpose of adopting a constitutional amendment empowering Congress to enact labor legislation for the entire Republic, a federal labor code has been passed and was promulgated by President Ortiz Rubio on August 18, 1931. Heretofore each State passed its own labor legislation in accordance with article 123 of the constitution, and the jurisdiction of Congress in labor matters was limited almost exclusively to the Federal District and Territories. Under this régime several of the States passed comprehensive labor codes, but in the majority such legislation was fragmentary, and the federal Government itself issued few decrees on the subject. Of these perhaps the only notable ones were those creating boards of conciliation and arbitration and establishing a weekly rest period. Disputes not covered by enabling legislation were

frequently decided by federal or State boards of conciliation and arbitration upon the basis of general principles established by the constitution, but these decisions resulted in much uncertainty and almost numberless interpretations of the rights and obligations of labor and capital. With the passage of the new law, however, almost every possible phase of the employer-employee relation has been fully covered and a unified and advanced social-economic policy adopted for the whole country.

Among the principal subjects treated in the new code are individual and collective labor contracts; hours of labor; minimum wages; working conditions of women and children; obligations of employer and employee; modification, suspension, rescission, and termination of labor contracts; labor unions; strikes and shutdowns; workmen's compensation; adjustment of labor disputes by boards of conciliation and arbitration; safety and sanitation measures; and administrative machinery.

Under the general provisions of the law, the terms used throughout the code are defined; the right of the individual to engage in the profession, industry, or business of his choice, if it be legal, is formally recognized; and regulations are promulgated requiring the employment of Mexican citizens in 90 per cent of the positions on both the technical and regular staffs of every enterprise and the use of the Spanish language in the issuance of orders and instructions to employees. The sale of intoxicating liquors and the maintenance of gambling or assignation houses in any labor center, or within a radius of 4 kilometers (kilometer equals 0.62 mile) if the center is located outside a city, are prohibited.

The law further provides that with the exception of contracts for domestic service; casual or temporary work not exceeding 60 days; services in connection with specific work, provided the total wages to be paid do not exceed 100 pesos; and agricultural labor other than that of housed farm hands referred to in the Law on Endowments and Restitution of Lands and Waters of March 21, 1929, all individual labor contracts shall be clearly stated in writing.

Minors of either sex between the ages of 12 and 16 years may enter into a labor contract only through their parents or legal representative; married women are free to enter into labor contracts and enjoy the privileges thereof without the consent of their husbands.

In cases of failure, liquidation, attachment, or succession of a business or enterprise, regardless of whether the worker continues rendering services or not, the receiver or other person in charge shall be under the obligation to pay within a period of one month the compensation earned and recognized by the labor authorities. Every employer engaging workers belonging to a union shall enter into a collective contract with it when so requested.

The collective labor contract, which is defined as any agreement between one or several labor unions and one or several employers or employers' associations, shall also be executed in writing. It shall be terminated only by the mutual consent of the parties; for reasons expressly stipulated in the contract; by the failure or judicial liquidation of the business; by the termination of the work for which the labor was contracted; by the exhaustion of the raw material furnishing the object of an extractive industry; by the total closure of the business; by any physical or mental disability of the employer making compliance with the contract or continuation of the enterprise impossible; and by accident or *force majeure*. In cases of the termination of the contract through judicial liquidation, the exhaustion of the raw material, the physical or mental incapacitation of the employer, or the closure of the business, the workers rendering services in the enterprise involved shall be indemnified with a month's wages. In the case of the total closure of the enterprise, should the employer either directly or through third parties establish within one year a similar enterprise, he shall be obliged to reemploy the same workers or pay them an indemnity equivalent to three months' wages. If, in case of accident or *force majeure*, the enterprise is covered by insurance, the workers shall be indemnified with a sum equivalent to three months' wages as soon as the policy is collected. Further clauses of the law dealing with labor contracts specify justifiable causes for their suspension, modification, rescission, and termination.

The maximum length of the working day shall not exceed eight hours for either sex. This, however, does not include domestic service rendered in places other than hotels, restaurants, hospitals, and similar institutions. The maximum length of night work, that done between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m., is seven hours. Minors between the ages of 12 and 16 years may work only six hours. When as a result of special circumstances the hours of work must be increased it shall not be for more than three hours daily nor more often than three times a week. Women and minors between the ages of 12 and 16 years of age shall never be compelled to work overtime. All workers shall be allowed one day of rest in every seven. Persons who have been employed in one firm for more than a year shall be given an annual vacation with pay; the length of this period shall be agreed upon by the parties to the contract, but it shall not be less than four working days. At the end of two years' service the employee shall be entitled to at least six days' vacation with pay.

Minors under 16 years of age and women shall not be employed in night shifts, in places where intoxicating liquors are sold for immediate consumption, or in unhealthful or dangerous trades save where, in the opinion of competent authorities, sufficient precautions have been taken to protect the worker. Expectant mothers shall not be com-

pelled to engage in any work involving great physical exertion three months prior to childbirth; they shall be given a vacation of eight days before and a month after childbirth and, if at the end of that time they are still unable to work, shall be granted leave without pay. Upon their return to work they shall be given half-hour rest periods at various times throughout the day to permit the nursing of their children. Every establishment employing more than 50 women shall provide a nursery.

Wages shall be paid at the place of work except when expressly stated to the contrary in the contract. The parties to the contract shall fix the date for the payment of wages; payment to day laborers, however, shall be made at least once every week, and to domestic servants and other employees once every fortnight. Wages shall be paid in legal tender and must be given directly to the worker or to persons designated by him in writing before two witnesses to receive it. Amounts deducted by the employer for debts, such as sums advanced in anticipation of wages, overpayments, the cost of errors or losses, goods purchased from the firm, and other similar items, shall not exceed 30 per cent of the amount received above the minimum wage. Aside from these exceptions and cases of deductions for labor union or cooperative organization dues or for savings accounts, to which the workers expressly give their consent, no amounts shall be taken from the wages, nor shall interest be charged on money advanced. Double pay shall be given for overtime work. The minimum wage in any industry in a given territory will be fixed by a special commission on which the workers and employers of that locality shall be equally represented. There shall be at least two commissioners for each group and one representative of the municipal government, who will act as president, on each minimum wage board.

Employers must take adequate measures to prevent accidents; establish and maintain elementary schools for the children of their employees when the labor center is located more than 3 kilometers from a town and there are more than 20 children requiring instruction; provide comfortable and hygienic dwellings for which they charge a rental of not more than one-half of 1 per cent monthly of the assessed value of the property; reserve, when the fixed population of a rural labor center exceeds 200 inhabitants and is over 5 kilometers from the nearest town, a space of not less than 5,000 square meters (square meter equals 10.26 square feet) for the establishment of public markets, municipal buildings, and recreational centers; and allow their employees sufficient time to vote. Those employing between 400 and 2,000 workers must pay all the expenses of an employee or the son of an employee at a school, either in Mexico or abroad, specializing in the technical, practical, or industrial phase of the business in which the firm is engaged. Should there be more than 2,000 workers

employed, the employer shall establish three such scholarships. The beneficiaries will be required to work for the employer for at least two years upon their return.

Employers are forbidden to require workers to make their purchases at any specified place; to accept money in return for employment or improved conditions; to oblige workers to resign from a union or any other labor organization; to take a collection for any purpose; to interfere with the religious or political views of their employees; to carry without the proper permit firearms in urban factories or shops; to employ the system of "blacklisting" persons who have been discharged; and to visit the factory, shop, or other establishment while under the influence of liquor or narcotics.

Workers who are victims of an occupational risk have the right to medical assistance, medicines, and compensation. The death of the worker as a result of a labor accident shall be compensated by the payment of one month's wages for funeral and other expenses and an amount equal to his wages for 612 working days, these sums to be paid in equal amounts to his dependent parents, wife, and children under 16 years of age. In cases of incapacitation as a result of a labor accident or occupational disease, only the worker himself will have the right to compensation, and should he be mentally incompetent payments shall be made to the guardian appointed by law. Compensation for permanent total disability shall be equal to the wages of the worker for 918 working days and that for permanent partial disability to a percentage based on the amount which would have been paid if the incapacity had been permanent and total. A table of the exact percentages payable for different causes is given in the law. When the incapacity is not permanent, the compensation shall consist of the payment of 75 per cent of the wages which the employee would have received had he been able to work.

Medicine and first aid shall be provided in the factory or establishment for persons suffering illness or accident. Employers having between 100 and 300 employees shall maintain a dispensary under the direction of a physician. When necessary the worker shall be taken to the nearest hospital or other place where he can receive treatment. Persons employing over 300 workers shall maintain an infirmary or hospital in charge of a physician. If, however, their factory or other enterprise is within two hours' ride from a hospital, they may make arrangements for the treatment of their workers in that institution. Should the sick person for any just cause refuse to receive the medical aid provided, he shall not on that account lose the right to compensation. Reports of all accidents must be made to the proper authorities.

The law recognizes unions and other similar associations, and establishes the rights of the employer and employee to organize such

bodies without previous authorization. For such an organization to be legal, however, it must register with the board of conciliation and arbitration of its district and with the Bureau of Labor of the Department of Industry, Commerce and Labor. Labor unions are forbidden to take part in matters of a religious or political nature; to engage in commercial enterprises for the purpose of gain; to use force in securing members; or to do violence to persons or property. Minors under 16 years of age and foreigners shall not be allowed to hold office in any labor organization. Strikes shall be limited to the suspension of work; they do not terminate the rights or obligations of labor contracts. Shutdowns are licit only when the board of conciliation and arbitration authorizes them as a means of maintaining prices in time of excessive production.

Aside from these provisions, the law establishes labor standards for sailors, domestics, railway employees, farm hands, and employees in small industries, and gives detailed regulations regarding the duties of labor inspectors and the membership and functions of the boards of conciliation and minimum wage commissions. Although the law was declared effective as of the date of its publication in the *Diario Oficial*, August 28, 1931, certain of its requirements, such as the preferential employment of nationals, the obligatory use of the Spanish language, and the form and substance of labor contracts, will not be strictly enforced for six months, in order to permit business to be adjusted in accordance with these provisions.

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## ART, SCIENCE, AND EDUCATION

A rapid review of recent intellectual activities in various Latin American nations will serve to illustrate the importance which is given by present-day leaders to the vital subject of popular education and the no less important matters of science and art.

In discussing cultural activities in ARGENTINA, special mention must be made of the 1931 opera season in the Teatro Colón, Buenos Aires. This magnificent theater is in every way the equal of the Metropolitan Opera House in New York. The past season, managed by a committee representing the city of Buenos Aires, was both artistically and financially a great success, the receipts totaling nearly 2,000,000 pesos. The chorus, the orchestra, and the *corps de ballet* were composed almost entirely of local artists. The latter, trained under the auspices of the Colon Opera House, does not suffer in comparison with the most famous in Europe. The Wagner season this year was conducted by Otto Klemperer, and among the soloists were Frieda Leider, Maria Rajdi, Lauritz Melchior, and Alexander Kipnis.

An interesting event in the field of art was the recent organization in Buenos Aires of a society called "Amigos del Museo," composed of a select membership of art lovers, both men and women. The object of the society is to foster the development of the national art museum and its enrichment by gifts and bequests. The president of the committee is Dr. Eduardo J. Bullrich, and it should also be mentioned that the Hon. Robert Woods Bliss, ambassador of the United States, is one of the members.

Lectures on Paradoxical Aspects of Modern Life were given in September last by the Argentine professor, Jorge Prando Howard, speaking under the auspices of the university in La Paz, BOLIVIA. Another interesting lecture was that given by Señor Félix Eguirro Zaballa, who discussed the processes of public education in Bolivia before the National League of Teachers and its guests. His theme was the necessity of preparing children for a constructive part in society and the consequent changes which should be made in the training of teachers.

Among the art exhibits which took place in La Paz last October, special mention should be made of the paintings of Señor Víctor Martínez Málaga, of Arequipa, Peru, shown under the patronage of the Hon. Carlos Concha, minister of Peru in Bolivia. Señor Martínez Málaga displayed portraits, colonial scenes, and Indian types.

Worthy of all praise is the circular sent out by the Minister of Education and Public Health of BRAZIL to State authorities and school principals concerning the conservation of national, historic, and artistic monuments and the dissemination of information concerning them. The circular asks for cooperation from State authorities in the appointment of a competent official or committee to prepare a detailed historical account and description of each monument in the respective States, to be accompanied by ample illustrative material. Frequent inquiries from abroad, asking for detailed information on special monuments, inspired the issuance of this circular; answers to questions will be published in condensed form in the Bulletin of the Ministry or in separate pamphlets if they prove of sufficient importance. A general summary will also be printed annually.

The oldest of the scientific institutions of Brazil, the Geographical and Historical Institute, whose history is intimately connected with that of national culture, celebrated its ninety-third anniversary on October 21, 1931. A feature of the meeting was a tribute of one minute's silence to Edison. The review published by the institute, of which 108 volumes have appeared, is one of the richest sources of national documentation; the last issue contains a history of Brazil by H. Handelmann. The institute possesses an excellent library containing an extensive collection of works on Brazilian history.

The Fourth National Conference of Education, called by the Brazilian Education Society, met in Rio de Janeiro, October 12 to 19, 1931. The principles of popular education were the subjects for discussion.

The Republic of COLOMBIA continues to maintain its proverbial reputation for culture. (See EDUCATIONAL BEACONS IN COLOMBIA, pp. 30 to 38.) Among the various measures adopted by the Government for the protection and spread of native art must be mentioned the law signed by the President last October, by virtue of which monuments and objects of archæological value throughout the country, but especially those recently found about San Agustín on the upper Magdalena, are declared of public interest. The decree provides that the temples, tombs, statues, stelæ, carved stones, objects of gold and pottery, and all utensils which are examples of pre-Colombian culture and may be utilized for archæological and ethnological studies belong to the "National Monument of the Upper Magdalena and San Agustín." The Government will make an appropriation in future budgets for further archæological explorations in the regions mentioned and for the purchase of objects for the National Museum of San Agustín. The decree prohibits the sale and export of such material and authorizes the Government to acquire the archæological sites in the aforementioned regions for a national park.

By virtue of a decree signed October 5, 1931, by the President and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, a national cooperating committee on the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse has been constituted. The following gentlemen, well known in literary and financial life, compose its membership: Señores Antonio Gómez Restrepo, Gustavo Michelsen, Julio Garzón Nieto, Arturo Jaramillo, and Daniel Samper Ortega.

University Day was observed in Santo Domingo, DOMINICAN REPUBLIC, on October 26, 1931, on the three hundred and ninety-third anniversary of the foundation of the University of St. Thomas Aquinas. On this occasion Dr. Henríquez y Carvajal, president of the university, recounted the history of this famous institution, which has been the alma mater of some of the most famous Dominicans and has exercised a marked influence upon the cultural life of the country.

A few months ago a number of members of the bar of ECUADOR met in the Central University at Quito to organize a society for the promotion of closer relations between the members of their profession. The organizing committee is headed by Dr. Francisco Pérez Borja.

In the Republic of EL SALVADOR the Ministry of Public Instruction has created a library and exchange section for the purpose of distributing national publications in foreign countries and of receiving from abroad books, reviews, pamphlets, and other printed material which



will help to keep El Salvador in close contact with the thought of other nations.'

A parents' association, started not long ago in San Pedro de Nonualco, will cooperate closely with the schools of that place and help to meet any material needs of the educational institutions. This is the first society of its kind to be established in the country.

On October 21, 1931, the Child Welfare Society of Guatemala City held a reception in honor of Gabriela Mistral, the distinguished Chilean poet and educator, who for some days was the guest of honor of GUATEMALA on her journey through Central America and Panama. In her remarks on this occasion, Senorita Mistral spoke on the special problems of education connected with Indo-Spanish populations. She praised the social welfare work of the Guatemalan women and also stressed the importance of nutrition in the psychological development of the child.

By virtue of a decree signed by the President of PARAGUAY on October 13, 1931, the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction was authorized to engage several scientists from the United States to reorganize the School of Medicine.

On October 8 of last year Journalists' Day was celebrated at the University of San Marcos in Lima, PERU, in accordance with the resolution of the National Press Association. This university, founded in 1551, is said to be the first South American University to add to its School of Liberal Arts an institute of journalism.

A travel seminar in the Caribbean was launched last winter by the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America, New York, under the direction of Dr. Hubert C. Herring, as an experiment in bringing citizens of the United States into something more than casual touch with the leaders of the Caribbean Republics. The second seminar will be held from January 23–February 10, inclusive, from New York.

Programs will be given as follows:

On shore: In Porto Rico, a program of conferences and a field trip, arranged by Gov. Theodore Roosevelt and Chancellor Carlos E. Chardon; in St. Thomas, a program arranged by Gov. Paul Pearson, of the Virgin Islands; in Santo Domingo, a program arranged by the Dominican Committee on Cultural Relations, of which Dr. Francisco Peynado is chairman; in Panama, an optional program arranged by Mr. Charles Thomson; in Port-au-Prince, a program arranged by our cooperating committee, of which M. Abel Leger is chairman; and in Habana, a program and field trip. On shipboard: Each day there will be sessions on shipboard, with lectures and round-table discussions on the history of the Caribbean Republics, the arts, economics, politics, and international relations of the Republics.

A few of the members will omit the visit to Panama and spend a week in Santo Domingo and Haiti, motoring over the island and visiting various inland cities and the Citadel of Christophe.

The faculty will include Lincoln Steffens, Chester Lloyd Jones, Ernest Gruening, Thomas E. Benner, Leland H. Jenks, Samuel Guy Inman, and Charles Thomson.

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## FEMINISM

While women have been permitted to assume duties in many a field but a short while ago deemed the exclusive province of men, their entrance into the diplomatic world has been comparatively recent. Miss Lucile Atcherson, the first woman to enter the career service of the State Department, was appointed in February, 1927, third secretary of the legation of the UNITED STATES in Panama, a position which she held until her resignation in September of that year. At the present time, Miss Frances Willis is United States vice consul in Valparaiso, Chile.

The United States, however, is not the only American nation that has appointed women to represent it in other countries of this continent. The highest position to which a woman has been appointed in the Diplomatic Corps of the Americas is held by Señora Delia Robles de Andreve, chargé d'affaires of PANAMA in Cuba. When in October, 1931, her husband, Señor Guillermo de Andreve, left his post as Minister to Cuba to accept the portfolio of Justice and the Interior of Panama, his wife remained in Habana to take charge of the affairs of her nation in that Republic until his successor should be appointed. Señora de Andreve, who had studied under President Alfaro in her undergraduate days, was particularly pleased with the appointment as an evidence of the progress of feminism in Latin America.

For the nomination of Miss Doris Stevens to membership in the American Institute of International Law, see p. 56.

# SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

REPORTS RECEIVED TO DECEMBER 11, 1931

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA		
Argentine provincial expenses and budgets for the year 1931.	1931 Sept. 11	A. M. Warren, consul at Buenos Aires.
The Argentine Annual Livestock Exposition of the Sociedad Rural Argentina.	Sept. 19	Do.
Section IX—Labor and Immigration, Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Sept. 30	Do.
Report on general conditions prevailing in Argentina, Oct. 4 to 17, 1931.	Oct. 20	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Copy of an article from <i>La Nación</i> of Oct. 11 with a translation of the same, covering a report concerning the school census submitted by the president of the National Council of Education.	Oct. 22	Do.
Argentine provincial school budgets.....	Nov. 4	Do.
BRAZIL		
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended June 30, 1931.	Aug. 20	George E. Seltzer, consul at Para.
The completion of the Jerry O'Connell Dam at Bananeiras, State of Bahia.	Sept. 10	Lawrence P. Briggs, consul at Bahia.
Farm-implement trade in northeastern Brazil.....	Sept. 14	F. van den Arend, consul at Pernambuco
Balance sheet of the Santos Municipal Administration on June 30, 1931.	Sept. 17	Arthur G. Parsloe, vice consul at Santos.
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Oct. 20	F. van den Arend, consul at Pernambuco.
CHILE		
Construction activities on thermo-electric plant for Valparaiso.	Oct. 9	Frank A. Henry, consul at Valparaiso.
Proposed new industry for Chile—growing of hemp.....	Oct. 21	Thomas D. Bowman, consul at Santiago.
COLOMBIA		
Long-distance telephone service.....	Oct. 3	H. D. Myers, vice consul at Buenaventura.
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Oct. 20	Carlos C. Hall, vice consul at Medellin.
Do.....	Oct. 20	Erik W. Magnuson, consul at Barranquilla.
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended June 30, 1931.	Oct. 22	T. Monroe Fisher, vice consul at Santa Marta.
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Nov. 12	Do.
Copy of Vol. II of <i>Memoria del Ministro de Educacion Nacional al Congreso de 1931</i> .	Nov. 12	Legation, Bogota.
COSTA RICA		
Copy of <i>Serpientes Venenosas de Costa Rica</i> .....	Sept. 22	Legation, San Jose.
Report on law governing official physicians in Costa Rica.	Oct. 28	David J. D. Myers, consul at San Jose.
Report on <i>Costa Rica Informativa</i> .....	Nov. 13	Do.
Report on Costa Rican currency circulation during October, 1931.	Nov. 19	Do.

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CUBA		
First Latin-American trip of the amphibian airplane <i>American Clipper</i> , with Col. Charles A. Lindbergh as pilot.	1931 Nov. 4	Knov Alexander, consul at Cienfuegos.
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC		
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Oct. 20	Lawrence F. Cotie, vice consul at Puerto Plata.
Excerpt from report on general conditions ended October, 1931.	Oct. 31	Legation.
EL SALVADOR		
Statistical report for 1930	Sept. 28	A. E. Carleton, consul at San Salvador.
GUATEMALA		
New notarial law	Oct. 7	G. K. Donald, consul general at Guatemala City.
HAITI		
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Oct. 30	Donald R. Heath, consul at Port au Prince.
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Haiti for the period Oct. 1 to 31, 1931.	Nov. 7	Legation at Port au Prince.
HONDURAS		
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Oct. 16	Henry S. Haines, vice consul at Puerto Castilla.
MEXICO		
Official opening of Salta-Monterrey section of Inter-Oceanic Highway (Matamoros-Mazatlan) in Mexico.	Oct. 3	Samuel Sokobin, consul at Saltillo.
PANAMA		
Excerpt from report on the general conditions prevailing in Panama for the month of August, 1931.	Sept. 22	Legation, Panama City.
Recent construction in Panama City	Oct. 2	Herbert O. Williams, consul at Panama City.
Excerpt from review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Oct. 19	Francis C. Jordan, vice consul at Colon.
Do	Oct. 26	C. Burke Elbrick, vice consul at Panama City.
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Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Sept. 30	William C. Burdett, consul general at Callao-Lima.
Documents pertaining to the proceedings of the opening session of the "Instituto de Estudios Internacionales y Relaciones Inter-Universitarias."	Oct. 21	Embassy at Lima.
Indian Education	Nov. 21	Do.
VENEZUELA		
Excerpt from general conditions in Venezuela for September, 1931.	Oct. 5	Legation at Caracas.
Tourist season of 1931-32	Oct. 17	Ben C. Matthews, vice consul at La Guaira.
Excerpt from review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 30, 1931.	Oct. 19	Do.
Island of La Orchila	Nov. 5	Do.



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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



FEBRUARY

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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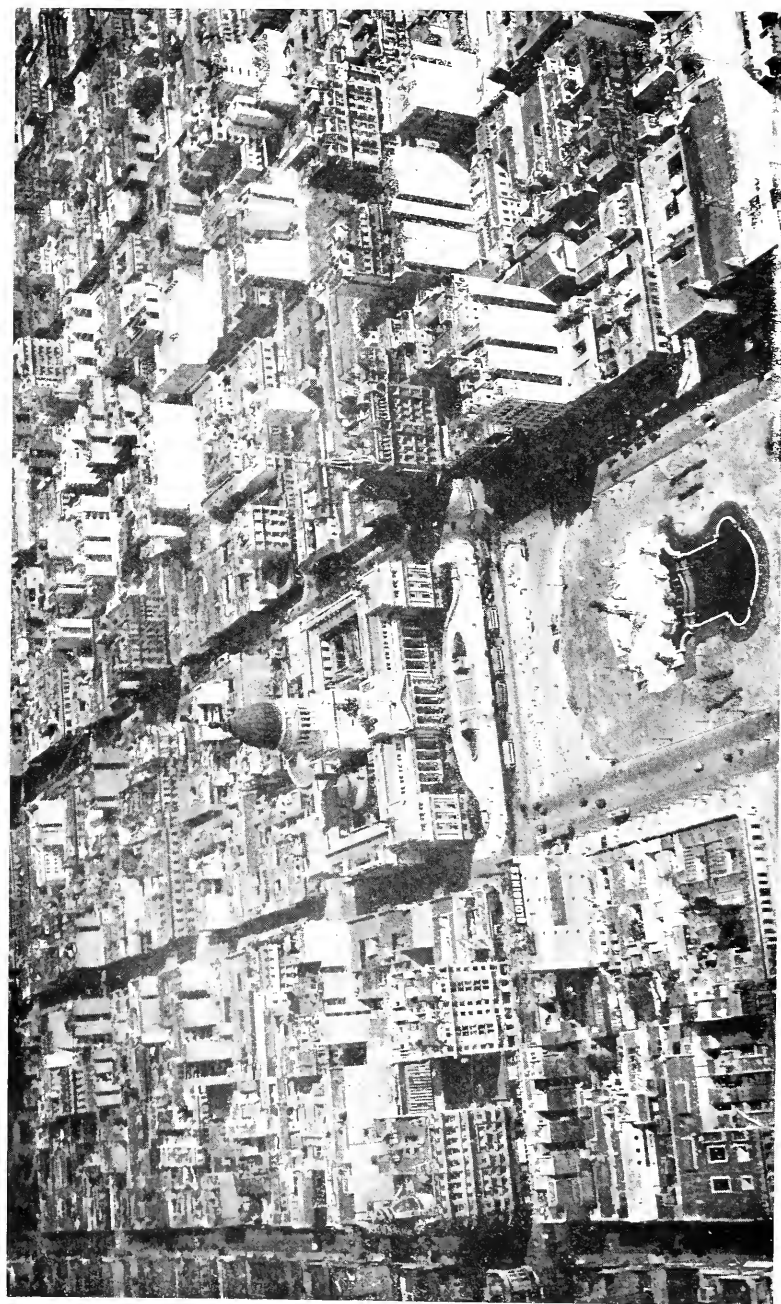
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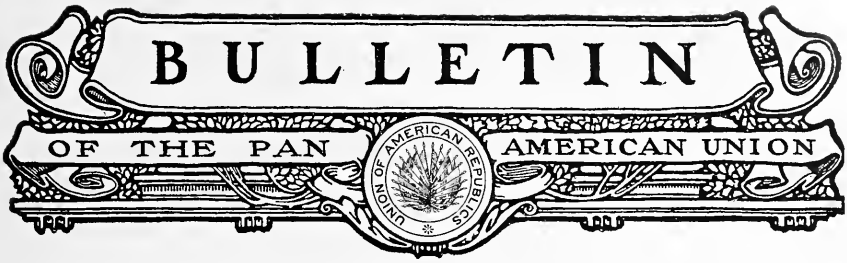
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THE CAPITOL, BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA





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## NEW AVENUES OF CULTURAL APPROACH BETWEEN THE NATIONS OF AMERICA

By HENRY KITTREDGE NORTON<sup>1</sup>

CERTAINLY there is need for them. There can not be too many open ways for cultural knowledge, understanding, and appreciation between the nations of America. For, despite the very creditable work already being done, there remains a haze over the Rio Grande and the Caribbean which distorts the view from either side.

A recent journey across seven of the republics of the southern continent has brought the writer into contact with ignorance, misunderstanding, prejudice, misinformation, and mendacious propaganda, all of which contribute to the South American impression of the United States. Equally disconcerting is it to find on returning to this country a similar concatenation of inaccuracies prevalent in regard to the republics to the south. The general advantage of more accurate information and wider knowledge is so patent as to need no argument.

The North American picture of what we are pleased to call "Latin America" is too well known. The simple truth about the tenor of life in the southern countries, suggestions as to the impressiveness of cities like Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Santiago, Lima, or Montevideo, are met with surprised incredulity. The development of some of the nations to the south, striking as it is, has been too far outside the line of vision of the average citizen of the United States to have crossed the threshold of his mind.

The traveler from the United States is still more astonished—probably because it is to him a newer phenomenon—at the prevailing

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<sup>1</sup> Mr. Norton, a well-known historian and writer on international relations, recently completed a tour of seven South American countries under the auspices of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. The ideas and suggestions which he here expresses are the fruit of personal observations made on that journey.—EDITOR.

conceptions of the United States among the peoples of the other American Republics. We are all too likely to be regarded as boorish, aggressive, money-mad imperialists, without a suggestion of culture. We have by some strange dispensation of Providence captured the secret of material power and are forever scheming to reduce the lands of the Western Hemisphere which lie outside our present borders to the status of colonies and their people to serfdom.

It is on the cultural side that there is the greatest confusion. Discussion of our political policies with an informed and dispassionate citizen of one of the southern republics discloses no particular antipathy to the fundamentals of our policy toward them. He may have reservations on the Monroe Doctrine; he may condemn intervention; but he finds both understandable in terms of national evolution, such as has found even more violent expression among these republics themselves. The development of trade between North and South speaks for itself. And it is to be hoped that financial relations may be satisfactorily worked out.

None of these matters would be a cause for concern to our southern neighbor if he could be sure of the philosophy back of them. Our political, military, economic, and financial power are threats to his liberty, his culture, and all he holds dear, if they are to become the instruments of an unmitigatedly materialistic and acquisitive people. If they are under the control of a people whose material success is tempered with idealism, with a love of the beautiful, with a desire to be of some service to mankind, then our southern neighbor has nothing to fear.

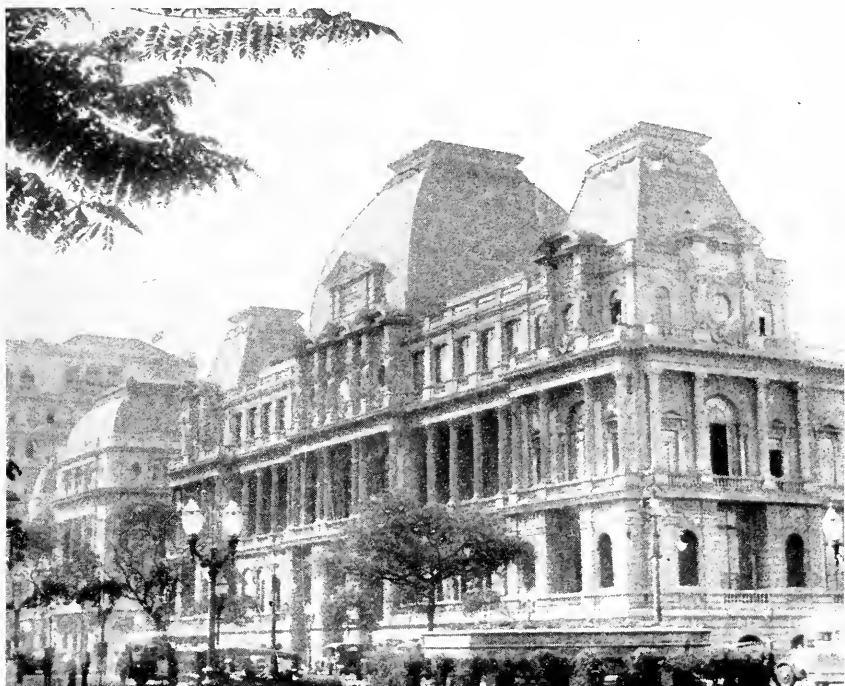
Now it happens that the general run of citizens of the United States are quite human. They are materialistic; they are acquisitive. These qualities are frequently reflected in the attitude or actions of the Washington Government.

It also happens that the general run of the citizens of the republics to the south of us are quite human. They, too, are prone to devote their energies to the acquisition of material things. Such cities as have already been mentioned are not built of dreams and music. Although the level of satisfaction of material wants is not as high as it is in the United States, that is readily explicable by the lack of economic maturity. The southern republics are all of them at least half a century younger than the United States and their development has not proceeded as far. But there is little evidence outside of the native Indian villages that the *desire* for material acquisition is any less insistent in southern latitudes than in northern.

But the citizen of the southlands knows that his acquisitive materialism is tempered by a love of beauty. His admiration of art, his rhythmic response to poetry, his craving for music, are to him

such immediate and present parts of his being that he can not think of himself as being at all interested in material things.

It is very easy for him to conclude that his own existence is a spiritual and idealistic thing compared to the mechanistic materialism of his northern neighbor. But it happens that the northern neighbor also has a cultural side. In the mass, social service is emphasized more than are poetry or art or music. But even in these spheres, the national contribution to the cultural capital of civilization is consider-



Courtesy of Laurence Vail Coleman

THE SCHOOL OF FINE ARTS, RIO DE JANEIRO, BRAZIL

able. And the national facilities for the appreciation of this artistic heritage are probably unsurpassed elsewhere.

I refer to the plenitude of public libraries, art museums, symphony orchestras, and other means of disseminating the opportunity for artistic enjoyment. Even in the exotic realm of opera, we are hardly behind other countries. Add to these items the untold endowment of universities, colleges, academies, foundations, hospitals, clinics, free dispensaries, sanitariums, children's camps, and all the paraphernalia devoted to making each generation healthier, wealthier, and wiser than the last, the sum total of American effort in social service, and we have a civilization which, however it may differ from

others, can not be classed as wholly materialistic, nor wholly lacking in culture.

Yet, by the curious coincidence of several factors, this side of the life of the people of the United States has been as effectively concealed from our neighbors to the south as has the richness of their cultural life been concealed from us.

First, the upper classes in the southern republics became conscious as their riches grew of a desire to return to the homeland—to Europe—a phenomenon which has been exactly paralleled in this country. Whether in Madrid or Lisbon or Paris, they were likely to find interest conspiring with ignorance to belittle the accomplishments of the United States. Europe remained for the Americans of the South the repository of the world's culture and they looked upon themselves as in a peculiar sense the heirs of Europe.

Second, our political aims, being born like the rest of the world's of our own interest, seemed to them disregardful of the rights and liberties of less powerful peoples. A fear spread among them that we might extend our supervision of Caribbean affairs farther to the south. They missed completely the distinction between the supervision which the United States has undertaken in certain Caribbean countries and our quite different relations with the southern continent.

Third, in our most intimate contacts we came to them as traders. After the manner of traders, even those of the southern hemisphere, we wanted to buy cheap and sell dear. We were frankly and eagerly after money. And in the early days we were not always too scrupulous as to how we got it.

It is easy to see, then, how the citizen of a southern republic received an unfavorable impression of the Americans of the North and of their civilization. It is easy to see how he came to look upon us as dollar chasers without a shadow of interest in the things which to him meant culture.

This early impression it has been to the interest of certain factions in his own country to keep alive. Even more it has been to the financial advantage of European competitors for South American trade not only to keep alive all of the original antipathies but to add to and intensify them to our undoing.

All such considerations enter into the problem of better understanding between the two Americas. The international foggiess produced by these things must be blown away in order that North and South may see each other as they are, the good along with the bad. Neither is perfect, but imperfections themselves create sympathy where they are but the background for tangible virtues.

The culmination of the postwar decade in the universal economic depression has paved the way for a new understanding between the peoples of America in a significant manner. In the North the younger

generation are questioning the validity of the dogma of isolation as the sole salvation for the United States. They are growing into a realization that their country has reached a stage in its development where it can not keep up the old rate of progress alone. Its present and its future are bound up with the rest of the world. In that world the America to the South looms large.

In the South, too, youth is skeptical of the convictions of past generations. It openly questions whether the Europe that centers in Paris and Madrid is the sole repository of the world's culture. It queries whether new times do not demand new beliefs. Some of the members of the rising generation, still clinging to the prejudices of the past, attack the United States with renewed vigor and also, reach-



LA MONEDA, THE PRESIDENTIAL PALACE, SANTIAGO, CHILE

ing out to a visionary future, embrace the doctrines and the practices of Soviet Russia. A steadier majority questions both the old condemnation and the new damnation of North American culture. They prefer to examine and analyze what has been done and what is being done in the United States as well as in Soviet Russia before rushing to extremes in premature decision.

Naturally this produces confusion. Periods of transition are always confusing. But out of the interplay of skepticism and prejudice, of prophecy and dogma, of ideas and beliefs, there will emerge a new understanding and a new appreciation between the peoples of the North and South of the American world. It is to the interest of all of them that this new relationship should be on a higher plane than the old.

When we come down to the question of method, we come to grips with a serious problem. The accumulation of national delusions is so vast and the means of attacking it so meager that the task seems impossible. In the record of what has been done we find both cheer and discouragement. So much good has been accomplished. So much more remains to be done.

Perhaps an incident or two will help to point the way.

It was in the library of one of the demigods of the Latin American literary world. The "master" had never been to the United States, but with unbounded magniloquence he was expatiating upon our shortcomings. I listened in silence, intent upon analyzing the motives back of a diatribe of this sort. Not so a young fellow countryman of the orator. He had spent the better part of a year traveling in the United States and he could not let pass in silence strictures he knew were wholly without warrant. He rose to his feet, and quietly and respectfully, but with the most earnest conviction, explained to his elder that the latter's conclusions were rooted in error and urged him to a greater knowledge before he indulged in further unfavorable verdicts. The younger man, armed with first-hand knowledge, had all the best of the argument.

Another day, another country. One of the most devoted physicians I have ever met was pleading in tones of agony for help in bringing home to his people what could be done in infant and child welfare work. "I have told them of what you do in the United States—I have seen it with my own eyes—but they will not believe me; they don't want to believe me. And they *must*; they must see that these lives can be saved, made happier. They *must* see it. If we only had a place here where I could take them and show them the charts and diagrams you use to make things clear to people in your exhibits in the United States. If I only had that, I could *make* them see it."

One thing was invariable in all countries which I visited in South America. The man or woman who had lived in the United States for a time is always a staunch friend of the country. Almost without exception such persons are better expositors of the good qualities of our North American life than any of our own citizens could be. The most frequent request from these foci of better understanding was assistance in showing to their fellow countrymen the side of American life which is not exported for commercial purposes.

The suggestion that this need be met by the establishment in one or more of the South American capitals of a *Casa Norteamericana* is worthy of careful study. It would be in a sense the embassy of the cultural side of our life, as the local American Chamber of Commerce is the embassy of the commercial side, and the embassy itself the representative of the political side. It would not only be the

center of the cultural activities of our citizens in the region, but would serve to focus the attention of the country in which it might be located on a more appealing side of our civilization.

Here in surroundings which might suggest the atmosphere of the United States, as the *Casa Italiana*, the *Casa de España*, the *Maison Française* and the *Deutsches Haus* in New York suggest their home atmospheres, would be found exhibits of paintings, of etchings, of architectural designs, of books and bindings, and of applied arts. Here too would be found all of the available statistical data on various social services, their aims, their methods, and their results. Here would be an exposition of American life so presented



THE MUNICIPAL BUILDING, LIMA, PERU

and kept up to date as to attract the interest of an increasing number of the people of the neighboring country. The influence of such an institution would be immeasurable.

An accompanying suggestion is that lecturers or exchange professors be sent to the various southern countries to discourse upon the more attractive aspects of the North American character. But a rather careful inquiry into the results of exchange professorships and traveling lectureships leaves an unfavorable impression.

I found no enthusiasm anywhere for the exchange professor idea. The South Americans look upon those who visit them in such a capacity as propagandists and discount them accordingly, while our own exiled fellow citizens squirm uneasily at their efforts to cater to

local prejudices and breathe more freely after they depart. The marks of their passing disappear with amazing facility.

One difficulty is that of language. With all of our increase in the number of Spanish courses, there are few indeed among our men who have anything to say who can say it in Spanish. The Spanish in our schools is largely of the Castilian variety, which differs widely from the various idioms of Central and South America, just as the English spoken in England differs from that used in the United States. It is taught for the most part by Americans of heterogeneous descent who have made it their "subject" for teaching purposes. The result has about the same effect upon our southern neighbors as the English taught by Japanese to the honorable Japanese schoolboys has upon us.

Castilian Spanish properly spoken is understandable, notwithstanding its pronunciation, in all Spanish American countries. The dictionaries of what was until recently the Spanish "Royal" Academy are their highest etymological authorities, except perhaps the erudite work of the Colombian Rufino J. Cuervo, in so far as it has been published and circulated. But each country has an idiom of its own, as the vocabulary of England is not that of the United States or Australia, and the living speech of Argentina, Chile, Colombia and Peru is far more important than that of Spain for the future of this country.

The need of learning the South American variations of Spanish and of having centers of accurate knowledge of the other American republics in this country suggests the widening of an existing avenue of approach between them and ourselves. A *Casa Norteamericana*, a museum of American contemporaries, an exchange professor, a traveling lecturer, is at best but a substitute for actually bringing people from the southlands to this country. Foundations like the Guggenheim and the Institute of International Education are doing excellent work along this very line. Their success has been so marked as to warrant the possibility of extending such activities to the advantage of both the southern countries and ourselves.

Suppose that the next time any one of a dozen of our more important educational institutions is seeking a professor of Spanish, it should invite a man from one of the South American countries to fill the chair for, say, three years. He should be a man of 35 to 45 years of age and should have demonstrated his ability sufficiently to be able to speak with some authority in regard to South American affairs. He should speak sufficient English to be able to lecture understandably before an audience here. It is of course much easier to find a South American who speaks acceptable English than it is a North American who speaks acceptable Spanish.

The chosen candidate would move with his family into the given university community. He is not a guest, not a visitor, not an emis-



sary, not a propagandist—he is a member of the community, working and playing with the other members. His salary would be the same as that of other professors in the particular university.

Suppose he were to give four courses each term. Three of these might be to advanced Spanish classes in which he would discuss in the idiom of his particular country, the history, the politics, the economics, the culture, the art, the literature of his own and the neighboring countries, their relations with each other, with the United States, and with the rest of the world. His remaining course might cover the same material in English for such students as were not versed in Spanish and would naturally be supplemented by lectures open to the public.



AVENIDA 6 DE AGOSTO, LA PAZ, BOLIVIA

At the end of three years he would return to his own country, his place in the American university to be taken by one of his fellow countrymen selected because of the same qualifications, this process to be repeated as long as it proved satisfactory.

Meantime, other universities might do the same thing with men from other countries until perhaps six or eight of the southern republics were represented.

The apparent advantages of this plan are several:

It would mean that in time each of the important South American countries would have in one of our universities a center of authoritative information and dissemination of its aims and points of view. Its representative would not become denationalized by permanent residence in the United States. Every three years should see a new

face, a new presentation, and a new emphasis within the framework of a permanent arrangement.

It would mean that the students of the Spanish language in the United States would be learning and using the living tongues of South America as spoken by South Americans instead of struggling, as in many instances, with secondhand Castilian.

As regards both the material and the vehicle, then, this plan offers the possibility of improvement over present methods, and a closer approach to the South American countries through our universities.

Then every three years a South American who has lived in the United States under normal conditions goes back to his own country with a new and deeper understanding of our national aims and attitudes. He goes back to his university, where he meets daily, among the students, rabid critics and eager inquirers regarding the United States. He does not offer to lecture them into understanding, but by virtue of his personal knowledge and sincere assurance, he should do much to correct the misunderstanding and traditional misinterpretation which are current.

Every three years another man is added to the number of those so equipped until in time the faculty and student body alike should become infused with a spirit of fair inquiry at least. This with sufficient material upon which to form a judgment is all the United States needs to rest its case with assurance upon the judgment of its Latin American peers.

At both ends, then, we should have sources of accurate information and the means of sympathetic interpretation and appreciation. University life both North and South would be enriched and the lines of understanding between the countries drawn closer.

The foregoing suggestions apply to all of the Spanish-speaking countries but, for two reasons, Brazil is a special case. In the first place, there is very little prejudiced criticism of the United States in Brazil. In the second place, the Portuguese language is not likely to be in such demand in our universities as Spanish. In addition, there happens to be at the Catholic University in Washington a numerous and valuable library of books in Portuguese donated by Dr. and Madame Manoel de Oliveira Lima, Brazilians who devoted years to its accumulation. Madame de Oliveira Lima now serves as its able curator.

With Brazil, however, there is another possible avenue of approach. Most of the educated Brazilians speak English—all of them speak French. A suggestion which seems to be most worthy of consideration is that we send to Brazil—not lecturers, for here as elsewhere there appears to be little faith in the public lecture—but experts on some

phase of scientific or cultural activity in which the United States has achieved some degree of leadership. Our summer vacation season is the most delightful part of the year in Rio de Janeiro and two months there should offer much to attract university professors. The first month might be devoted to a study of the local aspects of the visitor's specialty and the second to a seminar with 10 or a dozen Brazilians well qualified to study with him.

Both of these suggestions are predicated upon the one factor which has produced the most commendable results in our intercourse with our southern neighbors—the intimacy of real acquaintance. There is nothing new in them except the extension to hitherto more or less unexplored fields. They are but additional efforts to find the way through the fog of misunderstanding which weighs so heavily upon every person—be he from the South or the North—who is at all concerned with the relations between the American nations. Should these methods fail, there should be no hesitation about casting them aside and trying yet others. For the road of Pan American understanding must ultimately be cleared of all obstructions.





MONTEVIDEO, URUGUAY

A section of the city where the Seventh International Conference of American States will convene in December, 1932.

## PROGRAM OF THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

THE program of the Seventh International Conference of American States (Seventh Pan American Conference), which will meet at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December next, was approved by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at its session of January 6, 1932. Work in connection with the preparation of the program was initiated more than a year ago when the Committee on Program was appointed, composed of the Chairman of the Governing Board, the Ambassadors of Cuba, Peru, Brazil, Argentina, Chile, and Mexico, and the Ministers of Uruguay, Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Colombia. At the same time a subcommittee on program was designated, consisting of the Minister of Uruguay as chairman, and the Ambassadors of Cuba and Mexico and the Ministers of Guatemala and Colombia.

In June, 1931, the subcommittee formulated and submitted to the full Committee on Program, which in turn presented it to the Governing Board, a list of suggestions as a basis of selection for topics of the program. This list was transmitted to the governments members of the Pan American Union with the request that observations and comments thereon be forwarded to the Pan American Union before October, 1931. On the basis of the replies received the subcommittee on program formulated draft agenda, presented to the Governing Board at the meeting held on December 2, 1931. At that time the session of January 6 was fixed for final approval and at this latter meeting the program was adopted subject to such modifications as the governments members of the Pan American Union may subsequently agree upon.

The text of the program is as follows:

### JURIDICAL QUESTIONS

#### *International law.*

1. Inter-American copyright protection, and the possibility of reconciling the Habana and Rome conventions.
2. Nationality.
3. Territorial sea.
4. International responsibility of States, with special reference to the denial of justice.
5. The rights and duties of States.
6. Treaties and their interpretation.

7. Consideration of the report of the Committee on Public International Law of Rio de Janeiro on the general principles which may facilitate regional agreements between adjacent States on the industrial and agricultural use of the waters of international rivers.

8. Extradition.

9. Definition, duration, and reciprocity of political asylum.

*Uniform legislation.*

10. Consideration of draft conventions on uniform legislation relative to:

- (a) Bills of exchange, checks, and other commercial paper.
- (b) Bills of lading.
- (c) Insurance.
- (d) Simplification and standardization of the requirements for powers of attorney.
- (e) Juridical personality of foreign companies.
- (f) The losses caused by theft and pilferage of cargo in maritime commerce.
- (g) Any other draft conventions on uniform legislation relative to commercial and maritime law that may be formulated by the Permanent Committee on Comparative Legislation and Uniformity of Legislation established at Habana by virtue of the resolution of February 18, 1928, of the Sixth Conference.

*Political and civil rights of women.*

11. Consideration of the report of the Inter-American Commission of Women on the political and civil equality of women.

ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

12. Consideration of the draft convention on customs procedure and port formalities formulated by the Pan American Commission on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities which met at Washington from November 18 to 26, 1929.

13. The inter-American protection of patents of invention.

14. Consideration of the recommendations of the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference relative to:

- (a) Currency stabilization and the possibility of adopting a uniform monetary system.
- (b) Promotion of tourist travel.
- (c) Commercial arbitration.

15. Standardization of commodity classifications in tariff and commodity nomenclature for statistical purposes.

16. Consideration of the resolutions of the Inter-American Conference on Agriculture.

17. Consideration of the establishment of an inter-American economic and financial organization under the auspices of the Pan American Union.

TRANSPORTATION

18. Inter-American fluvial navigation: Reports of the Governments on technical studies relative to the navigation of rivers and the elimination of obstacles to navigation, and the possibility of connecting or bettering the connections which exist between them.

19. Report of the Pan American Railway Committee.

20. Study of the regulations and of the penal provisions of the Convention on Commercial Aviation signed at the Sixth International Conference of American States.

## INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION

21. American bibliography:
  - (a) Exchange of information.
  - (b) Encouraging national and continental bibliographic effort.
22. Consideration of the results of the Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators, which met at Habana in February, 1930.
23. International cooperation to make effective respect for and conservation of the national domain over historical monuments and archaeological remains.

## SOCIAL PROBLEMS

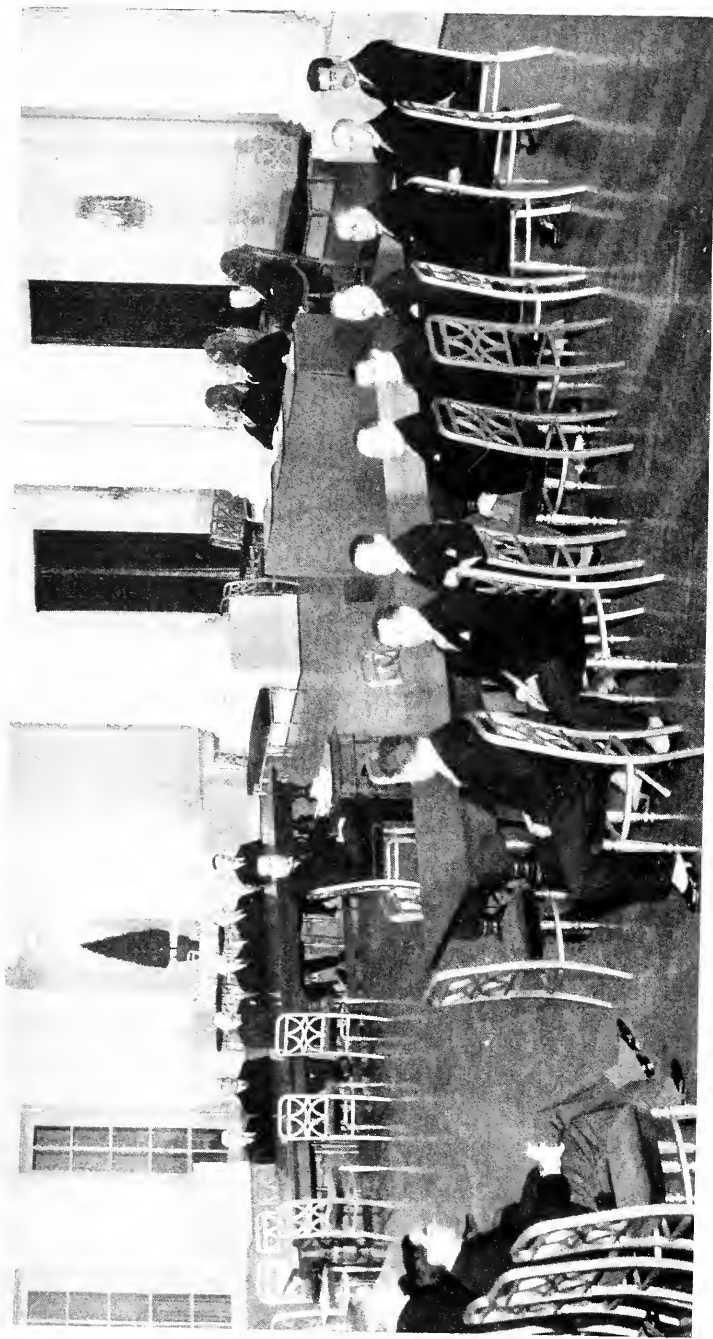
24. Consideration of the establishment of an Inter-American Bureau of Labor.
25. Improvement of the condition of living of workmen:
  - (a) Promotion of safety in industry.
  - (b) Improved housing conditions.
26. Social insurance: Unemployment and practical forms of unemployment insurance.
27. Results of national and international conferences on child welfare, with a view to broadening the work of the Inter-American Institute at Montevideo.
28. Uniformity of demographic statistics.
29. Application to foodstuffs and pharmaceutical products exported to other American countries, of the same sanitary, pure food and drug regulations which are in effect in the country of production on all those commodities consumed therein.

## RESULTS OF THE WORK OF PAN AMERICAN ORGANIZATIONS

30. Consideration of reports submitted by the delegations on the action taken by the States on the conventions and resolutions adopted at the International Conferences of American States, with special reference to the Sixth Conference.
31. Consideration of a plan to secure the prompt ratification of treaties and conventions and the early application of the resolutions adopted at the International Conferences of American States.
32. Results, not specifically included in other sections of this program, of special conferences held in the interval between the Sixth and Seventh International Conferences of American States and of the permanent institutions established by the international conferences.
33. Consideration of the reports of the Permanent Committee on Public International Law and of the Permanent Committee on Private International Law, established respectively at Rio de Janeiro and Montevideo by virtue of the resolution adopted by the Sixth International Conference of American States on February 18, 1928.

## INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES OF AMERICAN STATES

34. Consideration of the extraordinary convocation of the International Conferences of American States.
35. Participation in the Pan American conferences, and the adhesion of non-signatory States to the conventions signed at such conferences.
36. Future International Conferences of American States.



INAUGURAL SESSION OF THE GUATEMALA-HONDURAS ARBITRAL TRIBUNAL

Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union, December 15, 1931.



## THE GUATEMALA-HONDURAS BOUNDARY ARBITRATION

ON December 15, 1931, the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union was the scene of still another significant act in international relations. This was the organization of the Arbitral Tribunal created by the treaty signed in Washington July 16, 1930, by the plenipotentiaries of the Governments of Guatemala and Honduras, for the purpose of terminating the boundary dispute between those Republics.

This tribunal consists of the Chief Justice of the United States, Hon. Charles Evans Hughes, as president, and Dr. Luis Castro Ureña and Dr. Emilio Bello Codesido, distinguished jurists and statesmen of Costa Rica and Chile, respectively, as arbitrators.

The impressive inauguration of the tribunal, which signalizes the beginning of the definite settlement of this long-standing controversy, took place in the presence of the Latin American diplomatic corps in Washington and of officials of the Department of State of the United States and of the Pan American Union.

The three arbitrators were seated on a dais in the front of the hall. The origin and organization of the tribunal were first explained by its president. The secretary read the aforementioned treaty and the additional convention signed at the same place and time, which stipulates in detail how the boundary decided upon is to be delimited. Ratifications of both treaty and convention were exchanged in Washington on October 15, 1931.

The nations parties to the boundary controversy are represented by two of the signers of the treaty which created the tribunal: Dr. Carlos Salazar, a distinguished Guatemalan lawyer, and Dr. Mariano Vásquez, an eminent member of the Honduran bar. Each of them has served as Minister of Foreign Affairs of his respective country, and has held other important administrative and judicial offices.

They are assisted by a competent corps of officials from their own countries and by American legal advisors, as follows: For Guatemala, Mr. Charles Cheney Hyde, Dr. Adrián Recinos, Dr. Manuel Echeverría Vidaurre, associate counsel, and Señor Lisandro Sandoval, associate engineer; for Honduras, Dr. Augusto C. Coello, Dr. Augustine P. Barranco, associate counsel, and Señores Medardo Zúñiga and Félix Canales Salazar, associate engineers. Judge Frederick C. Fisher is assistant to the president of the tribunal, Señor Guillermo González, assistant to Dr. Castro Ureña, and Señor Carlos Lee,

assistant to Dr. Bello Codesido. Dr. Alfonso Carrillo is acting as secretary to the Guatemalan commission, and Señores Arturo Martínez Galindo, Miguel Paz Paredes, Hernán Coello Ramos, and Mariano Vásquez, jr., constitute the secretariat of the Honduran commission.

In the midst of a profound silence the secretary administered the customary oath of duty to the members of the tribunal. The president then announced that the tribunal would take jurisdiction over the previous question, formulated in Article I of the treaty, as to whether the tribunal would function as the International Central American Tribunal created by the convention of February 7, 1923, to decide the boundary question, as Guatemala contended, or in the character of a special boundary tribunal, as Honduras desired.

At a meeting held December 17, the tribunal received from counsel for both parties their respective briefs on the preliminary question, and with similar ceremony to that of the first day, the tribunal met on January 8 to make public its decision. To the question in the treaty of July 16, 1930, "Is the International Central American Tribunal created by the convention of February 7, 1923, competent to take cognizance of the boundary question pending between Guatemala and Honduras?" the tribunal replied unanimously in the negative, saying:

If the special tribunal, established by the treaty of July 16, 1930, should undertake to act as the International Central American Tribunal, it would be possible for either party, dissatisfied by its award, to insist that the award was null and void because the special tribunal had not been "organized in strict accordance" with the convention of February 7, 1923. Instead of the determination of the present dispute, there would thus be another dispute based upon the express words of that convention.

Therefore, upon due consideration, acting as the special tribunal established by the treaty of July 16, 1930, we answer the preliminary question submitted by that treaty in the negative. This special tribunal, not being constituted strictly, as it is not, according to the convention of February 7, 1923, has not the competence, as the International Central American Tribunal established by that convention, to take cognizance of the boundary question between Guatemala and Honduras; but it has, and assumes, complete jurisdiction to take cognizance of and decide that controversy as Special Boundary Tribunal as provided by the treaty of July 16, 1930.

In view of the decision handed down, the Special Boundary Tribunal has assumed full jurisdiction to take cognizance of and decide the controversy, in accordance with the procedure stipulated in the treaty mentioned. Within 30 days after the announcement of the decision, the agents of Guatemala and Honduras must present their cases, proofs, and documents of any nature which they deem expedient for establishing their points of view and claims as to boundaries. The parties then have 60 days in which to submit to the tribunal their respective replies, and 15 days more to challenge the proofs accompanying these replies. The tribunal will then proceed to pronounce

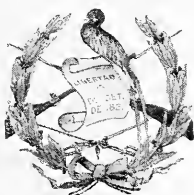
its award, which must be executed within the time prescribed in the additional convention to the treaty of July 16, 1930.

The career of Chief Justice Hughes and his qualifications for president of the tribunal are well known to all his fellow citizens in the United States. As Secretary of State of the United States he presided over the Nine-Power Disarmament Conference in 1921 and the Conference on Central American Affairs in 1923, both held in Washington. Later he headed his country's delegation to the Sixth International Conference of American States. Moreover, as chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union while he was Secretary of State, he took an active interest in the work of the Union. His other contributions to the promotion of Pan American friendship are many and important.

Dr. Luis Castro Ureña has long been prominent in Costa Rican judicial and political circles. He has been both justice and chief justice of the Supreme Court and on the occasion of the controversy concerning the Bryan-Chamorro treaty relative to the projected interoceanic canal through Nicaragua, he acted as counsel for his country in the suit brought against Nicaragua in the Central American Court of Justice. He has also been a member of the Costa Rican Congress and was recently ranking member of the Cabinet as Secretary of the Interior.

Lawyer, diplomat, and statesman, Dr. Emilio Bello Codesido has several times held the portfolio of Foreign Affairs of Chile, has represented his country in Mexico and Bolivia as minister plenipotentiary and has also been chief of the Chilean delegation to the assembly of the League of Nations with the rank of ambassador. He has served as delegate to various international conferences and has constantly promoted the cause of Pan Americanism. In January, 1925, after the Military Junta of September, 1924, had ceased to act, he was called upon to preside over the Government Junta and thus for a time was Chief of State of the Republic.

Mr. Benjamin Cohen, of Chile, who has been the efficient interpreter and official of many international conferences, is serving as secretary of the tribunal.



# JUAN ZORRILLA DE SAN MARTÍN

By BEATRICE NEWHALL

*Of the Staff of the Bulletin of the Pan American Union*

IN 1877 there arrived in Montevideo from Chile a young Uruguayan of 22 with a book of his own poems under his arm. The youth was Juan Zorrilla de San Martín, who, after having studied in three lands, was returning home to enter his chosen profession of the law and to win for himself international fame as writer, orator, educator, diplomat, and jurist.

This famous poet of Uruguay was born in Montevideo December 28, 1855; he attended seminaries in Santa Fé, Argentina, and Montevideo, and finished his education in the law school of the University of Chile, where he studied from 1873 to 1877. During Zorrilla's undergraduate days in Santiago many of his early verses and his maiden efforts at prose writing were published in *La Estrella de Chile*; it was a collection of these poems, under the title *Notas de un himno*, which the budding lawyer brought home with him as one of his most cherished possessions.

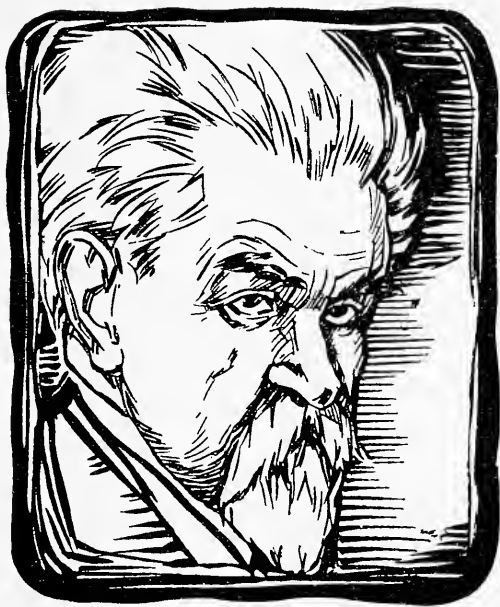
The public career of Zorrilla began with his appointment in 1878 as judge in the Department of Montevideo. A few years later he became a judge of the court of first instance but resigned to take up private practice. In 1878, too, he founded the daily *El Bien Público* to find an outlet for his facile pen and his strong religious convictions, and during those years spent much time working on his epic poem *Tabaré*.

The composition of *Tabaré* was interrupted in 1879, however, to permit him to write *La leyenda patria*, read at the dedication of a monument commemorative of the independence of Uruguay. The poem won this privilege by sheer merit; although its nonconformity with the conditions of the competition made it ineligible for the prize, its obvious superiority to the successful entries led the committee in charge to invite Zorrilla to read his contribution also. Carried away by the lyric beauty of the poem and its dramatic rendering by the author, the public at once acclaimed it and insisted that Zorrilla be awarded the prize. The popularity of the poem was immediate and sustained; its author was so constantly in demand to read his poem that in 1890 a humorous critic could remark of an evening's entertainment, "Dr. Zorrilla de San Martín did *not* recite *La leyenda patria*."

During the Quebracho Revolution, Zorrilla de San Martín, who had bitterly attacked the Government, retired to Argentina, but in two

years he returned and was elected Deputy to the national Congress for the term 1887-1890. During this latter period his masterpiece, *Tabaré*, appeared (1888), fulfilling the promise of *La leyenda patria* and assuring its author of an enduring place in the field of letters.

At the expiration of his term of office as Deputy, Zorrilla de San Martín began his short career as diplomat, in the post of Minister of Uruguay to Spain and Portugal, and later, to France also. In 1898 he was sent on a special mission to the Holy See. In that same year he returned to his country, to continue his work as teacher, begun in the university in 1880; he was professor, at different times, of such widely different subjects as literature, international law, and æsthetics. Events abroad in which he participated as a member of Uruguayan delegations include the Centenary of Independence celebrations in Buenos Aires and Santiago, Chile, in 1910, the International Commission of Jurists in Rio de Janeiro in 1912, and the inauguration of President Gondra of Paraguay in 1920; he also served as a member of The Hague Tribunal. In his own country, besides being founder and president of the Uruguayan Institute of Geography and History and member of the Uruguayan Society of International Law, he was



From "Criterio", Buenos Aires

JUAN ZORRILLA DE SAN MARTÍN

A portrait of the great Uruguayan poet by "Elsa"

Government representative on the board of directors of the Bank of the Republic. In 1926, in connection with the celebration of the First Centenary of National Independence, the house in which the venerable poet had lived for over a quarter of a century was bought with money raised by popular subscription, and formally presented to him. After his death on November 4, 1931, his body was accorded the full honors of a military funeral and laid to rest in the National Pantheon beside those of the famous heroes whom he immortalized in verse.

In addition to the poetry already mentioned, the published works of Zorrilla de San Martín include *Huerto cerrado*, 1898; *Resonancias*

*del camino*, travel essays, 1894; *Conferencias y discursos*, 1904; *La epopeya de Artigas*, 1910; and *Sermón de la paz*, 1924. *Conferencias y discursos* contains speeches delivered in Europe and America, on such varied occasions as the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, the meeting of a congress of pedagogy, the dedication of a new women's prison, a literary gathering. On the printed page, without the magnetic personality of the author, the eloquence often seems slightly exaggerated; yet the depth of feeling can not be denied, as in the following quotation from a speech delivered at the banquet tendered the President of the Republic, D. José Batlle y Ordóñez, October 1, 1903:

I have just crossed for the first time, gentlemen, the hills of that rolling region in the north of my native land, which is after all but a larger expression of my native city. Once I descried on the horizon a grove of palm trees which the train was slowly leaving behind as they quivered on the crest of that distant hill. Then I was told that they were the palms of Soto, and a pensive, sadly luminous glow broke, like an aurora borealis, from the depths of my tangled memories. . . .

That was the scene of the conflict: those palms, at once the symbol of peace and the emblem of glory, weep their long elegy in the wind; they weep for all those fallen in battle, whether on the one side or on the other; they do not distinguish between the slain in their never-ending, almost maternal lamentation, which issues from the depths of the sacred soil of our fatherland, rises with the growing tree, and is diffused between heaven and earth by the musical murmurs of suppliant leaves.

The intense feeling for Uruguayan national history which marks these paragraphs was typical of Zorrilla. As Gustavo Gallinal has said (*Inter-America*, December, 1924):

Zorrilla de San Martín has consecrated a great part of his life, almost all his activities as a writer and a citizen, to creating, shaping, and invigorating the national sentiment. This is the purpose of *Tabaré*, an evocation of the national landscape, an elegy on the unsung races that sowed their bones in our native soil; and for the same purpose was written *La epopeya de Artigas*, an epic of the nation's historical formation; *La leyenda patria*, born of the same purpose, sings the miraculous resurrection of the year 1825 and of ultimate independence. This trilogy is what is fundamental in his work; in it, the soul of the poet of the national tradition rises like a triple spiral of incense burned on the civic altar.

*La epopeya de Artigas*, an historical biography in two stout volumes, is more than a chronological account of the life and death of the Uruguayan hero; it is a vivid interpretation of the man and of his followers, of the era in which they brought the Eastern Shore of the Uruguay into being as a separate and independent republic. So vividly does it portray the character of the national hero that when the Government of Uruguay commissioned the Italian sculptor Zanelli to design the bronze monument to Artigas now standing in the Plaza Independencia, it recommended that he study this book before undertaking his work.



THE ARTIGAS MONUMENT, PLAZA INDEPENDENCIA, MONTEVIDEO

The sculptor of this monument was inspired by Zorrilla de San Martín's vivid biography of the Uruguayan national hero.

But had Zorrilla written nothing more, his fame would rest secure upon the two poetic works, *La leyenda patria* and *Tabaré*. Both are intensely Uruguayan in subject and scene, both deeply romantic in feeling, but where the one is based on the glorious struggle for independence begun in 1825 under General Lavalleja and the "Thirty and Three," the other deals with the Indians and the early Spaniards.

*La leyenda patria*, as has been said, achieved an immediate popularity which has been, in a certain measure, its undoing. As one author has remarked, during the 50 years which have passed since it was written, there has been hardly a single citizen, great or small, who has not learned by heart some of its declamatory passages. Constant quotation has made its noble images seem hackneyed, and dulled the appreciation of the poem as a whole. Starting with a description of the country lying prostrate under the invader, the poet sings of the arrival of the heroic band of Thirty-Three, the two great battles which won independence for the Republic, and his belief in the future of his nation. The poem has been called romantic, but that was partly because it appeared before the romantic movement had entirely disappeared, partly because the lyric beauty of the lines is so unusual. In reality it is rather in the classical tradition, recalling in places the work of Olmedo; at times it has a biblical savor, as in the lines apostrophizing the Battle of Ituzaingó:

Ituzaingó! . . . Lord God of battles!  
Master armipotent of Sabaoth!  
Who on that day in Thy content didst grant  
Palms to the martyr, to the warrior laurels;  
Thy name I utter  
With that of my loved native land;  
Speak, Lord, to Thy son,  
Let Thy heralds tell the intrepid people  
The divine legend of their sires,  
For the poet's lyre is impotent  
And trembles, mute in its passion,  
Under the crushing weight of memories.

The unquestioned masterpiece of Zorrilla de San Martín is the epic poem *Tabaré*. Romantic in subject and treatment, lyrical in expression, it is one of the few enduring expressions of a native theme in the literature of that period; other works of the kind exist only as historical data.

The plot of the story is typical of its class. *Tabaré*, the protagonist, is a mestizo, the son of a *Charrúa* cacique and a captive Spaniard. The sight of Blanca, the sister of the chief of the local Spanish settlement, recalls to the lad the Christian mother who sang to him songs no other Indian boy ever heard, and, influenced by those memories, the blue-eyed Indian worships the maiden in silence from afar. At the instigation of the new cacique, Yumandú, the villain of the piece



who has seen and become enamored of Blanca, the Indians attack the Spanish colony and Yumandú carries off Blanca. She is promptly rescued by Tabaré, however, who kills Yumandú to deliver her from the evil designs of the savage. But before the hero can return her to her own people, he is slain by her brother, who, believing the mestizo responsible for the raid, headed an expedition to save his sister. The poem ends with Tabaré mutely dying in Blanca's arms, "like his race, like the desert, like a tomb abandoned by death—a tongueless mouth, a heavenless eternity."

It is the portrait of the hero that is at once the strength and the weakness of the poem. Tabaré can be considered neither as a representative character nor as a symbol. He is a purely imaginary figure, and true epic heroes are of either real or legendary substance. But as the mestizo played a minor rôle in the early history of the continent, there was no figure available about whom to develop such a poem. As a symbol, too, Tabaré is not entirely successful. A purely Indian hero would not have served the poet's purpose; he needed an exceptional rather than a typical protagonist, and Tabaré, in whom the Christian and pagan were in constant conflict, fitted that requirement. Therefore the protagonist, though the very fact of his mixed origin makes him a romantic hero *par excellence*, can not possibly be considered a typical native American, one who should "incarnate our America," as Zorrilla said in the prologue.

Yet had Tabaré not been a mestizo, feeling himself alien to both civilizations, a great part of the originality of the work would have been lost, and the poem, in spite of its beautiful imagery and lyric lines, would probably have come to be considered, after the first flush of novelty had worn off, just another of the poems on native themes that flourished in that period.

Anatole France has called Zorrilla the Longfellow of Uruguay. But the resemblance begins and ends with the fact that both poets wrote of their own woods and rivers. With *Evangeline*, as Carlos Roxló points out, *Tabaré* has nothing in common; the pastoral scenes of the former are the antithesis of the dramatic background of the latter. *Hiawatha*, it is true, deals with Indian customs and with life in the open forest, but as a human being its protagonist is both possible and probable, while that of *Tabaré* is, while possible, most unlikely. As the story progresses, *Hiawatha* grows through his natural experiences into an almost mythical and fabulous person, but Tabaré remains throughout a solitary homeless wanderer, with no hope of happiness during life nor after death.

It would be surprising if, in so lengthy a work, the inspiration of the author did not occasionally fail. *Tabaré* is not free from dull and prosaic passages, yet the haunting beauty of the cradle song or

the dialogue between Blanca and Tabaré, the vividness of the portrait of Yamandú, more than compensate for occasional lapses. Miss Alice Stone Blackwell has retained the lyric quality of the original in her moving translation of the cradle song,<sup>1</sup> one stanza of which reads:

Sleep, sleep! If when you wake you do not find me,  
From far away I still shall speak to you.  
A sunless dawn will on your lips leave softly  
My kiss invisible, as light as dew.  
Sleep, they are calling;  
Sleep, night is falling.

The reputation of *Tabaré* has perforce suffered in the more than 50 years since it was first published, by the inevitable change in literary tastes. The superficial critic, seeing only the outmoded form in which the thought is cast, straightway condemns the content; he does not stop to consider that the author may have expressed therein universal and essential values understood and appreciated by widely separated generations. And as Alberto Zum Felde said in his recent book of literary criticism, *Proceso intelectual del Uruguay*:

In spite of everything, Zorrilla de San Martín can not be denied the credit of having written the one historical poem on a grand scale extant in our literature. And, notwithstanding its grave defects, *Tabaré* will continue to occupy an important place in our national letters until there comes—if indeed there does come—another to improve upon and supersede it.

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<sup>1</sup> Published in "Some Spanish-American Poets," translated by Alice Stone Blackwell, D. Appleton & Co., 1929.



## MIDWINTER'S EVE IN BRAZIL

### ST. JOHN'S EVE OR VESPERA DE SÃO JOÃO

By ANYDA MARCHANT

WHEN the European colonizers took their traditional festivals to tropical and subtropical countries they found a natural obstruction to contend with—the climate, with its seasons turned wrong way to. Christmas in December became a midsummer holiday, and St. John's, which in Europe was midsummer's eve and a very important feast in all medieval Christendom, became midwinter's eve. In Brazil, falling as it did on the shortest day of the year, June 24, it provided the people with a great midwinter festival of religious and seasonal significance. The weather is then, theoretically at least, at its coldest for the year, and fires, the most outstanding single feature of the St. John's Eve celebrations, are welcome.

The feast was always, in its very nature, more of a country festival than a city one. It was the occasion for the *fazendeiros* to invite their city friends out for the fireworks and banqueting—sometimes prolonged for days—the invitation to be reciprocated on New Year's, which was celebrated more in towns, with balls and routs. The festival has lost much of the glamor and lavish splendor which characterized it in its heyday in the time of the Empire, when the most representative life of the times was that on the huge coffee *fazendas*, worked by slave labor. Around it clustered a wealth of folklore, custom, and tradition bearing on the intimate and vital things of life—birth, marriage, fortune, death—and it became the supreme occasion for family reunion and cheer.

Before the day itself, long poles were set up in gardens and in front of houses to indicate that there would be a celebration in honor of the saint. These poles carried either small flags with a picture of São João or a figure of the saint. The popular explanation for these and for the so very thorough association of fire with St. John is to be found in a folk tale which claims that it was by means of such a pole, with a fire at its base, that St. Isabel (Elizabeth) announced John's birth to St. Mary. In the towns, street venders sold fireworks, sweet potatoes, sugarcane, green corn, and *cará* to be roasted in the bonfires. On the *fazendas* great stores of fireworks were collected. Like Christmas it was an occasion of good will and good cheer; and it was the custom for the *fazenda* slaves all to have new clothes for

St. John's Eve. On the eve huge bonfires were built in the court-yards, and every guest was supplied with fireworks. The coals of the bonfires were considered sacred, and were sent to friends, for whoever received them was sure to live another year. The *fazenda* slaves had their festivities in the open, it being one of the features of the occasion for them to perform their native African dances on the wide coffee *terreiros* or drying fields. In Sao Paulo, where it can grow cold enough for frost, the great fires sometimes lighted around the coffee fields to protect the crops, provided an additional festive note at this time of the year.

Though a midwinter holiday, St. John's had a great deal in common with the harvest festivals of the temperate zone. For instance, the poles with the flags or figures were decorated with harvest produce, for the Brazilian June climate is more nearly like the northern autumn than the northern winter. Also it was the most miraculous night of the year; and midnight was the most miraculous hour. Thus one could tell one's future with a glass of water which had been passed in the sign of the cross over the bonfire and had then had an egg broken into it. Water possessed certain virtues before sunrise, and it was the custom to take a St. John's Eve bath, as the water had then miraculous and curative powers. If one's faith was sufficient, one could jump through the bonfire without hurt. The person, while leaping over the fire, would shout:

"Awake, St. John!" And a chorus would answer:

St. John is asleep,  
Do not awaken him, no!  
Give him pinks and roses,  
And sweet basil too!<sup>1</sup>

The woods at this time are ablaze with flame-colored pyrostegias (*P. ignea*, Pers., and *P. venusta*, Miers), the gorgeous and short-lived blossoms of which appear like myriad fires to the glory of the favorite saint, and so have come to be known as St. John's Flower or Flôr de São João.

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<sup>1</sup> S. João 'stá dormindo,  
Não acorda, não!  
Dê-lhe cravos e rosas,  
E mangiricão!

From "Festas e Tradições Populares do Brazil" by Mello Moraes Filho

## SUMMER SCHOOLS OF SPANISH<sup>1</sup> IN THE AMERICAS

FEW indeed are the persons among the American reading public to whom Mexico has not become well-known ground in the last few years through books and articles by Carleton Beals, Ernest Gruening, Anita Brenner, Frank Tannenbaum, and Stuart Chase, to mention some of the many authors who have written on Mexico. Even children have had the pleasure of visiting the market of Cuernavaca with Mrs. Dwight Morrow in search of *The Painted Pig*, so charmingly drawn by Count René d'Harmoncourt. And nearly 20,000 New Yorkers visited Diego Rivera's exhibition of paintings and frescoes during the first nine days it was open in the Museum of Modern Art, beginning December 23 of last year.

But no book, no picture, however vivid, can give the same experience as one's own travel and study. Hundreds of American teachers and students of Spanish have found in the National University of Mexico Summer School, whose twelfth session will be held from June 29 to August 20 of this year, friendly contact with citizens of another American Republic, excellent classes in Spanish and a wide range of allied subjects, a view of the culture of a country settled a hundred years before our own, and a glimpse into the remarkable indigenous civilizations which the Spaniards encountered at the time of the conquest. Some background courses, such as that in the history of Mexico, are given in English for the benefit of students having only an elementary knowledge of Spanish. Summer school credits are accepted by many colleges and universities in the United States.

The altitude of Mexico City—7,500 feet—gives it a cool and delightful climate in summer. While the city is extremely modern in many respects, the attraction of magnificent colonial architecture and of exotic ways is also present. Excursions are arranged by the summer school authorities to places of interest, including the great pyramids at San Juan Teotihuacan; Puebla, whose churches glitter with patterned tiles on façade and dome; and Taxco, so picturesque an old town that it has been made a national monument.

For complete information regarding this summer school and special railroad and steamship rates, inquiries may be addressed to the

<sup>1</sup> There is no summer school of Portuguese on this continent. The University of Coimbra, at Coimbra, Portugal, however, offers elementary and advanced courses in Portuguese in its summer session, beginning about July 20 and lasting through August, concerning which interested persons may inquire of Dr. J. de S. Coutinho, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C., or of Dr. J. Mendes dos Remedios, University of Coimbra.



A PATIO OF THE SUMMER SCHOOL BUILDING, MEXICO CITY

Since 1925 the sessions of the summer school of the National University have been held in the famous "Casa de los Mascarones" (House of Masks), a beautiful example of colonial architecture.

Director de la Escuela de Verano, Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, Ribera de San Cosme, 71, Mexico, D. F.

A "Seminar in Mexico" will be held in Mexico City, as in the past seven years, under the auspices of the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America, from July 3 to 23. This is not a summer school of Spanish, strictly speaking; its purpose is, through lectures delivered and round tables conducted by Mexican and American authorities, to give, in some measure, a comprehension of Mexican problems and culture to citizens of the United States. No language can, of course, be thoroughly studied without some degree of such comprehension of the countries where it is spoken; in the case of Spanish, this background extends to 18 Republics in this hemisphere, as well as to that newest of European Republics, Spain. The mem-

bers of this year's seminar will be offered the first opportunity to stay at the committee's *casa* in Taxco. This house is for the use of people in the United States who wish to visit Mexico and live in a typical Mexican village. It is fully equipped, has a large garden, and is able to accommodate eight people at one time. Dr. Hubert C. Herring, 112 East Nineteenth Street, New York City, is executive director of the seminar.

A STREET IN TAXCO,  
MEXICO

At every turn of the narrow, cobblestone streets winding through Taxco, a picturesque scene is brought into view. Excursions to Taxco are planned by the summer school of the University of Mexico, and by the "Seminar in Mexico," which has a house in the town.



The University of Guatemala is this year for the third time holding a summer session for foreigners. To step into the cloistered patio of the university building transports the student into the realm of Spanish-American culture, which he is privileged to explore under skillful guidance. Although the definite curriculum for this year has not been announced, it is to be presumed that the courses will include, as in former years, Spanish, the history, geography and literature of Central America, the history of Guatemala, and native folk dances. Lectures will also be given on various subjects, especially the Maya civilization, of which imposing remains are to be seen at



ANTIGUA, GUATEMALA

The National University of Guatemala had its beginning in Antigua, the old capital, in 1676, when it was founded as the Pontifical University of St. Charles. The university in its present organization dates from May 31, 1928.

Quirigua, on the way by rail from Puerto Barrios to Guatemala. These great carved stelæ and enormous boulders, one of which has been called the most perfect work of art of pre-Columbian America, rise impressively against a background of tropical forest.

Guatemala City itself is not old as Spanish-American cities go, having been founded about 1780 after the once magnificent capital at Antigua had been almost demolished by earthquake. The bluest of skies, mountains towering in the distance, and churches with beautiful baroque altarpieces are among the charms of this city, set almost a mile above the sea and therefore enjoying a comfortable climate.

Information concerning the summer school at the University of Guatemala may be secured from the Guatemalan consulates in New York and San Francisco.

Plans are being made to inaugurate in July, 1932, a summer school at San Marcos University in Lima, Peru, "the City of the Kings." "Nearly a century before John Harvard delivered his handful of books in Cambridge to found the first seat of learning in the United States," writes Mr. William A. Reid, foreign trade adviser of the Pan American Union, "the masters at San Marcos in Lima had grown old and infirm in educational service. Earthquake and siege have again



and again damaged or destroyed the buildings of this institution, but its work, started in 1551, continues to the present day, modernized, improved, and enlarged in many ways. Spain's greatest university of ancient days, that of Salamanca, appears to have been the model for that of Lima. A royal charter came from Emperor Charles V and his mother, Queen Juana, rooms were secured in the monastery of Santo Domingo, and the work of education in the New World was systematically begun. To-day the University of San Marcos maintains schools of law, medicine, literature, theology, and political science, courses which have been pursued not only by many of the past and present leaders in Peruvian life, but by those of other nationalities who are proud to call San Marcos their alma mater."



THE UNIVERSITY OF SAN MARCOS, LIMA, PERU

The oldest university of the New World, founded in 1551, is to inaugurate in July of this year a summer school for foreigners. The statue at the left is of a former rector, Bartolomé Herrera.

The summer school will be conducted in the same way as those held in the United States, i. e., there will be a six weeks' session with daily periods for each course during five days of the week. The courses offered will include elementary and advanced Spanish, Latin American literature, Peruvian archæology and one on current Latin American affairs (politics, sociology, and economics). Arrangements will be made for the students to visit the Amazon Basin, also historical Cuzco, famous as the capital of the Incas.

The summer school at Lima will offer an exceptional opportunity to study at the oldest university in the Western Hemisphere. The climate is cool in July and August, as it is winter in Peru at that time. Moreover, the voyage offers the opportunity of seeing the Panama

Canal, one of the most marvelous of man's works, and possibly of touching at ports in several different countries.

Those interested in this summer school are requested to communicate with the Institute of International Education, 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York City, for further details.

Within the territory of the United States there is a Spanish-speaking island which serves as a link between North and South America. This is Puerto Rico, whose university at Rio Piedras will conduct in 1932 its eleventh summer session. Waving palm trees and groves of bamboo give its beautiful campus a tropical aspect. The summer school, which will open this year about July 1 and close by the middle of August, has had many noted professors on its fac-



A CORNER OF THE CAMPUS, UNIVERSITY OF PUERTO RICO

The University at Rio Piedras will conduct its eleventh summer session in 1932.

ulty. The courses, as formerly, will include elementary and advanced work in Spanish language and literature. The credits granted by this university are accepted by a large number of institutions in the United States. Further information may be obtained from Mr. A. S. Pe-dreira, University of Puerto Rico, Rio Piedras.

That there are many excellent courses and even special summer schools of Spanish in the United States goes without saying. The summer schools in Mexico, Guatemala, Peru, and Porto Rico are briefly described here for the benefit of those who wish to combine travel with study, to "see America first," in a more extended and correct sense than that commonly used, to have the advantages of hearing Spanish constantly spoken, and to enjoy a Spanish American cultural environment. "The real bonds between nations," as Gov.

Theodore Roosevelt of Puerto Rico well said at the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference, "are groups of citizens with intimate friends and acquaintances within the borders of their neighbors."

In closing this brief notice, a word of warning must be said against enrolling in any school or joining any party without first being convinced that it is of a responsible character. In some cases very alluring promises have been made in advance notices of summer schools, promises which have not been fulfilled owing to the incompetence or unscrupulousness of the group leader. It behooves the prospective traveler, therefore, to satisfy himself by personal investigation as to what he may expect, and thus save himself not only great annoyance but serious inconvenience and financial loss.



Table I.—LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE IN 1930—A GENERAL SURVEY

Countries	Imports			Exports			Total foreign trade		
	1929	1930	Increase + or decrease —	1929	1930	Increase + or decrease —	1929	1930	Increase + or decrease —
Mexico.....	\$101,421,490	\$175,089,208	—\$16,332,282	\$295,316,628	\$229,337,245	—\$65,979,383	\$486,738,118	\$404,426,453	—\$82,311,665
Guatemala.....	30,399,067	16,473,970	—13,925,097	24,928,229	23,577,818	—1,350,411	55,327,296	40,051,788	—15,275,508
El Salvador.....	17,340,286	12,436,000	—4,904,286	18,415,497	13,656,500	—4,758,997	35,755,783	26,092,500	—9,663,283
Honduras.....	11,860,931	15,946,128	+3,085,197	24,569,166	26,171,218	+1,602,052	39,430,997	42,117,346	+2,687,249
Nicaragua.....	11,707,440	8,172,340	—3,535,080	10,872,526	8,343,358	—2,529,168	22,669,966	16,515,718	—6,154,248
Costa Rica.....	20,163,986	10,846,590	—9,317,346	18,197,910	16,330,604	—1,867,306	38,361,846	27,177,194	—11,184,652
Panama.....	19,277,988	17,757,920	—1,520,068	4,143,502	3,302,008	—841,494	23,421,490	21,059,928	—2,361,562
Cuba.....	216,215,113	162,452,268	—53,762,845	272,439,762	167,410,669	—105,029,093	488,654,875	329,862,937	—158,791,938
Dominican Republic.....	22,729,444	15,229,219	—7,500,225	23,736,497	18,551,841	—5,184,656	46,465,945	33,781,060	—12,684,881
Haiti.....	17,237,922	12,841,626	—4,396,296	16,723,833	14,144,567	—2,579,266	33,961,751	26,986,193	—6,975,562
North American republics.....	561,443,617	447,245,289	—114,198,328	709,343,550	520,825,828	—188,517,722	1,270,787,167	968,071,117	—302,716,050
Argentina.....	836,137,434	717,007,261	—119,130,173	925,131,601	595,681,055	—329,450,546	1,761,269,035	1,312,688,316	—448,580,719
Bolivia.....	26,067,305	21,219,134	—4,848,171	51,102,569	37,069,917	—14,032,652	77,169,874	58,280,051	—18,889,823
Brazil.....	416,104,977	253,181,916	—162,923,061	455,352,913	314,070,865	—141,282,048	871,457,890	567,252,781	—304,205,109
Chile.....	196,857,513	170,090,500	—26,767,013	279,146,471	161,611,929	—117,534,542	476,003,984	331,702,429	—144,301,555
Colombia.....	122,585,680	60,955,859	—61,629,821	123,065,787	109,327,263	—13,738,524	245,651,467	170,283,152	—75,368,315
Ecuador.....	16,967,053	12,796,221	—4,170,832	17,207,364	16,129,308	—1,078,056	34,174,417	28,925,529	—5,248,888
Paraguay.....	13,434,592	14,685,178	+1,250,586	13,055,973	13,751,159	+695,186	26,490,565	28,436,337	+1,945,772
Peru.....	75,940,984	53,307,217	—22,633,767	134,082,584	96,453,300	—37,579,284	209,979,568	149,760,517	—60,213,051
Uruguay.....	98,509,167	92,873,661	—5,635,506	96,466,537	104,898,770	+8,432,233	194,975,704	197,772,431	+2,796,727
Venezuela <sup>1</sup> .....	88,260,374	77,455,414	—10,813,960	141,349,880	143,366,727	+2,016,847	229,619,254	220,822,141	—8,797,113
South American republics.....	1,890,874,079	1,473,572,361	—417,301,718	2,235,911,679	1,592,360,323	—643,551,356	4,126,785,758	3,065,932,684	—1,060,853,074
Total Latin America.....	2,452,317,696	1,920,817,650	—531,500,046	2,945,255,229	2,113,186,151	—832,069,078	5,397,572,925	4,084,003,801	—1,363,569,124

<sup>1</sup> Fiscal year ended June 30.

# LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE IN 1930—A GENERAL SURVEY

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

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## PART I

THE total foreign commerce of the 20 Latin American republics in 1930 was \$4,034,003,801. Compared with the preceding year there was a decline in both imports and exports. The following statistics demonstrate the distribution and relative changes: 1929, imports, \$2,452,317,696; exports, \$2,945,255,229; total, \$5,397,572,925; 1930, imports, \$1,920,817,650; exports, \$2,113,186,151; total, \$4,034,003,801. A decline in imports is shown of \$531,500,046, or 21.6 per cent; in exports of \$832,069,078, or 28.4 per cent; or a decrease in the total foreign trade of \$1,363,569,124, or 25.2 per cent. These decreases were attributable in large part to the world-wide decline in the price of crude materials and foodstuffs and the curtailed buying power resulting therefrom.

The following table shows the commercial movement of Latin America for the past 10 years:

*All Latin America—10-year table of foreign trade*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Year	Imports	Exports	Total trade	Year	Imports	Exports	Total trade
1921.....	2,039,223	2,031,524	4,070,747	1926.....	2,316,266	2,670,445	4,986,711
1922.....	1,616,438	2,108,110	3,724,548	1927.....	2,311,836	2,888,279	5,200,115
1923.....	2,012,272	2,451,325	4,463,597	1928.....	2,393,652	3,029,663	5,423,315
1924.....	2,108,546	2,905,813	5,014,359	1929.....	2,452,318	2,945,255	5,397,573
1925.....	2,412,485	2,802,115	5,214,600	1930.....	1,920,818	2,113,186	4,034,004

## DISTRIBUTION OF TRADE

The relative share of the leading commercial nations in the import and export trade of Latin America in 1929 and 1930 is indicated in the following statistics, all figures being from Latin American official sources:

*All Latin America*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	2,452,318	1,920,818	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	366,672	280,553	14.9	14.5
France.....	126,651	95,210	5.1	4.9
Germany.....	265,516	210,607	10.8	10.9
United States.....	950,159	675,833	38.7	35.1
Exports (total).....	2,945,255	2,113,186	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	546,647	428,849	18.5	20.2
France.....	183,686	123,885	6.2	5.8
Germany.....	238,710	163,261	8.1	7.7
United States.....	1,001,648	706,522	34.0	33.4

Dividing the countries into two groups as in the main tables published herewith, we have the following results:

*Latin republics in North America*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	561,444	447,245	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	39,147	28,721	6.9	6.4
France.....	24,345	19,461	4.3	4.3
Germany.....	36,677	30,695	6.5	6.8
United States.....	352,617	277,445	62.8	62.0
Exports (total).....	709,344	520,826	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	87,397	73,636	12.3	14.1
France.....	30,712	25,817	4.3	4.9
Germany.....	48,348	38,652	6.8	7.4
United States.....	443,163	298,736	62.4	57.3

*South American republics*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	1,890,874	1,473,572	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	327,524	251,812	17.3	17.0
France.....	102,306	75,748	5.4	5.1
Germany.....	228,839	179,911	12.1	12.2
United States.....	597,542	398,389	31.6	27.0
Exports (total).....	2,235,912	1,592,360	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	459,250	355,213	20.5	22.3
France.....	152,974	98,068	6.8	6.1
Germany.....	190,362	124,608	8.5	7.8
United States.....	558,485	407,786	24.9	25.6

TRADE OF THE INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES IN 1930 COMPARED WITH THAT OF 1929

The trade of the individual countries in 1930 as compared with the previous year, by imports and exports, and increases and decreases, is given in Table I. In addition to the trade of each country, the table shows grand totals for the republics of North America, including the countries from Panama north, for the South American republics, and for all Latin America.

The distribution of trade for each republic as among the four leading importing and exporting countries is shown in Tables II and III, grand totals being given for the northern and southern groups and for all Latin America.

A brief survey of the trade of each Latin American republic for 1930, with comparative figures for 1929, follows:

## LATIN REPUBLICS IN NORTH AMERICA

## MEXICO

The value of the foreign trade for the year 1930 reached a total of \$404,426,453, being a decrease of \$82,311,665, or 16.9 per cent. The value of the imports (\$175,089,208) decreased by \$16,332,282, or 8.5 per cent, and the value of exports (\$229,337,245) by \$65,979,383, or 22.3 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	191, 421	175, 089	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	12, 824	10, 390	6. 6	5. 9
France.....	9, 627	10, 207	5. 0	5. 8
Germany.....	15, 371	16, 448	8. 0	9. 3
United States.....	132, 302	119, 435	69. 1	68. 2
Exports (total).....	295, 317	229, 337	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	30, 343	27, 446	10. 2	11. 9
France.....	11, 474	9, 819	3. 8	4. 2
Germany.....	22, 429	16, 347	7. 5	7. 1
United States.....	179, 336	133, 756	60. 7	58. 3

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	191, 421	175, 089	Exports (total).....	295, 317	229, 337
Mineral products.....	44, 084	32, 334	Silver.....	46, 928	36, 962
Vegetable products.....	24, 633	22, 448	Lead.....	42, 256	31, 666
Textiles and manufactures.....	20, 793	21, 608	Copper.....	44, 469	31, 019
Animals and animal products.....	20, 106	19, 268	Petroleum, heavy and light.....	16, 403	14, 375
Chemicals and drugs.....	12, 443	13, 165	Gasoline.....	6, 251	7, 234
Automobiles, including chassis.....	12, 186	10, 475	Lubricants.....	6, 085	4, 727
Machinery and apparatus.....	28, 344	( <sup>1</sup> )	Fuel oil.....	2, 591	4, 638
			Kerosene.....	4, 104	3, 697
			Gas oil.....	3, 257	2, 759
			Asphalt.....	4, 975	4, 047
			Coffee.....	16, 093	13, 778
			Tomatoes.....	4, 921	8, 041
			Henequen.....	16, 132	7, 636
			Fresh and dried fruits.....	4, 189	5, 281
			Chicle.....	5, 075	4, 474
			Cattle.....	3, 405	4, 113

<sup>1</sup> Comparable data unavailable.

## GUATEMALA

Guatemala's total foreign trade in 1930 amounted to \$40,051,788, showing a decrease of \$15,275,508, or 27.6 per cent as compared with 1929. Of this total, \$16,473,970 comprised imports and \$23,577,818 exports. Compared with the previous year, imports show a decrease

of \$13,925,097, or 45.8 per cent, and exports of \$1,350,411, or 5.4 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	30,399	16,474	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	2,881	1,372	9.4	8.3
France.....	1,097	473	3.6	2.8
Germany.....	4,206	2,052	13.8	12.4
United States.....	16,925	9,539	55.6	57.9
Exports (total).....	24,928	23,578	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	157	712	.6	3.0
France.....	78	493	.3	2.0
Germany.....	9,928	8,290	39.8	35.1
United States.....	11,400	9,210	45.7	39.0

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	30,399	16,474	Exports (total).....	24,928	23,578
Cotton textiles and manufactures	3,598	2,324	Coffee.....	19,093	19,354
Food products.....	3,950	2,093	Bananas.....	3,212	2,437
Chemicals and drugs.....	638	472	Chicle.....	320	587
Petroleum and products.....	1,175	893	Lumber.....	868	209
Iron and steel.....	1,650	842	Sugar.....	334	162
Agricultural and industrial machinery.....	1,594	771			
Silk goods.....	937	419			
Automobiles.....	504	247			

EL SALVADOR

Foreign trade in 1930 amounted to \$26,092,500, of which imports accounted for \$12,436,000 and exports \$13,656,500. A decrease in the total trade of \$9,663,283, or 27 per cent is indicated. Imports decreased by \$4,904,286, or 28.2 per cent, and exports by \$4,758,997, or 25.8 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	17,340	12,436	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	2,556	1,566	14.7	12.5
France.....	1,011	677	5.8	5.4
Germany.....	1,413	1,100	8.1	8.8
United States.....	9,051	5,864	52.1	47.1
Exports (total).....	18,415	13,657	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	214	74	1.1	.5
France.....	340	662	1.8	4.8
Germany.....	5,852	4,010	31.7	29.3
United States.....	3,961	3,198	21.5	23.4



*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	17,340	12,436	Lard.....	248	176
Cotton piece goods.....	1,686	1,674	Leather and leather goods.....	273	172
Iron and steel.....	1,888	1,035	Fertilizers.....	217	89
Machinery and apparatus.....	1,501	865	Cheese.....	210	60
Mineral oils.....	729	721			
Wheat flour.....	863	663	Exports (total).....	18,415	13,657
Lumber.....	393	521			
Cotton yarn.....	357	499	Coffee.....	17,045	11,957
Chemicals, drugs, and medicines.....	633	460	Sugar.....	907	773
Automobiles and accessories.....	784	315	Henequen.....	199	196
Bags for coffee and sugar.....	287	291	Balsam.....	111	71
Silk fabrics (natural and artificial).....	284	195	Cotton, raw.....	18	39
Cement.....	280	181	Indigo.....	29	28
			Straw hats.....	11	26

## HONDURAS

The foreign trade of Honduras in 1930 reached a total value of \$42,117,346, registering an increase of \$2,687,249, or 6.8 per cent over the previous year. Imports, amounting to \$15,946,128, recorded a gain of \$1,085,197, or 7.3 per cent, and exports, valued at \$26,171,218, increased by \$1,602,052, or 6.5 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	14,861	15,946	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	838	931	5.6	5.8
France.....	296	360	1.9	2.2
Germany.....	632	730	4.2	4.5
United States.....	11,563	11,886	77.8	74.5
Exports (total).....	24,569	26,171	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	1,979	1,953	8.0	7.4
France.....	60	110	.2	.4
Germany.....	2,947	3,509	11.9	13.4
United States.....	18,273	19,352	74.3	73.9

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	14,861	15,946	Exports (total).....	24,569	26,171
Cotton textiles.....	2,411	2,244	Bananas.....	20,869	22,981
Iron and steel manufactures.....	1,006	1,222	Silver bullion.....	1,482	1,062
Mineral oils.....	1,074	1,175	Sugar.....	575	555
Machinery and apparatus.....	626	739	Coffee.....	525	402
Ready-made clothing.....	801	646	Tobacco, leaf.....	216	242
Lumber.....	690	588	Coconuts.....	153	209
Chemicals, drugs, and medicines.....	527	531	Cigars.....	117	153
Boots and shoes.....	408	470	Cattle.....	198	147
Wheat flour.....	392	327			
Rice.....	187	206			

Table II.—DISTRIBUTION OF TRADE—IMPORTS

LATIN AMERICAN IMPORTS FROM LEADING COMMERCIAL COUNTRIES

Countries	Total from all countries		United Kingdom		France		Germany		United States	
	1929	1930	1929	1930	1929	1930	1929	1930	1929	1930
Mexico.....	\$191,421,490	\$175,089,208	\$12,824,071	\$10,390,048	\$9,626,641	\$10,206,736	\$15,370,759	\$16,448,267	\$132,302,498	\$119,434,694
Guatemala.....	30,399,067	16,473,970	1,371,877	1,371,877	1,097,341	472,964	4,206,711	2,051,510	16,925,388	9,538,887
El Salvador.....	17,340,286	12,436,000	2,556,452	1,566,387	1,010,733	677,021	1,413,323	1,100,195	9,800,928	5,863,622
Honduras.....	14,800,931	15,946,128	887,807	931,103	295,579	359,752	631,520	729,827	11,503,364	11,865,510
Nicaragua.....	11,797,440	8,172,360	1,275,806	798,599	345,881	247,792	1,085,920	736,281	7,389,738	5,023,615
Costa Rica.....	20,103,936	10,846,590	2,553,708	1,315,276	507,314	314,148	3,531,852	1,331,556	9,681,771	5,400,485
Panama.....	19,277,988	17,757,920	1,636,389	1,654,460	531,504	522,893	1,029,227	912,915	13,154,343	10,878,918
Cuba.....	216,215,113	162,452,268	12,020,591	8,860,143	8,989,712	5,464,806	7,477,468	6,102,925	127,060,534	91,872,214
Dominican Republic.....	22,729,444	15,229,219	1,389,328	896,774	586,774	346,921	1,175,616	728,079	13,457,238	8,535,988
Haiti.....	17,237,922	12,841,626	1,172,209	936,982	1,353,751	848,408	755,321	552,914	12,041,146	9,000,768
North American republics.....	561,443,617	447,245,289	39,147,332	28,720,649	24,344,830	19,461,441	36,676,717	30,095,469	352,616,948	277,444,701
Per cent of imports.....	100.0	100.0	6.9	6.4	4.3	4.3	6.5	6.8	62.8	62.0
Argentina.....	836,137,434	717,007,291	147,409,719	127,000,000	51,173,736	140,000,000	96,099,472	185,000,000	220,359,690	1155,000,000
Bolivia.....	26,067,405	21,219,134	4,322,355	3,539,556	845,828	600,205	3,553,686	2,879,825	29,706,120	3,909,254
Brazil.....	416,104,977	253,181,916	79,943,029	48,918,704	22,094,905	12,778,702	52,787,085	28,866,000	125,395,140	61,162,795
Chile.....	196,857,513	170,090,500	34,811,279	26,006,256	8,041,070	8,550,435	30,418,781	28,713,974	68,347,646	57,092,336
Colombia.....	122,885,080	60,965,859	17,640,436	7,572,904	6,908,298	3,264,063	17,677,036	7,674,571	56,998,816	27,681,270
Ecuador.....	16,967,053	12,796,262	3,239,028	2,327,092	732,428	373,490	2,142,987	1,667,573	9,008,132	4,337,105
Paraguay.....	13,434,392	14,685,178	1,632,443	2,008,045	700,953	1,721,789	2,142,987	1,667,573	9,008,132	4,337,105
Peru.....	73,940,984	53,307,217	11,352,456	9,004,414	2,891,556	1,721,789	7,604,896	6,134,946	31,706,216	20,388,853
Uruguay.....	98,809,167	92,873,601	15,740,452	15,000,288	3,691,469	3,691,469	10,080,834	9,383,720	30,905,850	23,308,723
Venezuela <sup>2</sup> .....	88,269,374	77,455,414	11,463,122	9,854,910	3,683,546	3,934,902	7,206,197	8,133,091	51,224,902	40,441,330
South American republics.....	1,800,874,079	1,473,572,361	327,524,319	251,812,029	102,306,350	75,748,209	228,838,913	179,911,485	597,542,469	398,388,651
Per cent of imports.....	100.0	100.0	17.3	17.0	5.4	5.1	12.1	12.2	31.6	27.0
Total of the 20 republics.....	2,452,317,696	1,920,817,650	366,671,651	280,532,677	126,651,180	95,209,650	265,515,630	210,006,954	950,189,417	675,833,352
Per cent of imports.....	100.0	100.0	14.9	14.5	5.1	4.9	10.8	10.9	38.7	35.1

<sup>1</sup> Estimated.<sup>2</sup> Fiscal years ended June 30.

Table III.—DISTRIBUTION OF TRADE—EXPORTS

LATIN AMERICAN EXPORTS TO LEADING COMMERCIAL COUNTRIES

Country	Total to all countries		United Kingdom		France		Germany		United States	
	1929	1930	1929	1930	1929	1930	1929	1930	1929	1930
Mexico.....	\$295,316,628	\$229,337,245	\$30,342,944	\$27,445,509	\$11,473,539	\$9,818,970	\$22,429,194	\$16,347,497	\$179,335,928	\$133,756,457
Guatemala.....	24,928,229	23,577,818	166,577	711,784	77,891	493,300	9,927,760	8,290,194	11,399,671	9,209,797
El Salvador.....	18,415,497	13,656,500	214,172	74,450	339,660	662,008	5,852,480	4,010,296	3,961,117	3,198,090
Honduras.....	24,959,166	20,171,218	1,978,784	1,953,196	60,143	109,564	2,947,246	3,508,855	18,273,189	19,331,971
Nicaragua.....	10,872,526	8,343,358	399,487	290,067	894,400	1,128,279	1,292,849	972,276	5,754,038	4,150,183
Costa Rica.....	18,197,910	16,330,604	10,291,671	9,667,868	37,049	64,442	1,979,381	1,624,422	5,049,828	4,202,129
Panama.....	4,143,902	3,302,008	53,951	33,732	22,106	3,650	44,801	23,777	3,902,219	3,120,847
Cuba.....	272,439,762	167,410,699	34,241,737	25,469,874	5,817,666	4,047,083	2,251,284	2,181,399	208,753,671	116,074,116
Dominican Republic.....	23,736,497	18,551,841	8,902,878	7,329,192	2,742,701	2,456,792	940,468	697,848	5,427,102	4,368,121
Haiti.....	16,723,533	14,144,567	814,597	660,298	9,246,612	7,033,165	682,041	995,919	1,306,361	1,304,637
North American republics.....	709,343,550	520,825,828	87,396,798	73,635,970	30,711,767	25,817,253	48,347,504	38,652,483	443,163,124	298,736,368
Per cent of exports.....	100.0	100.0	12.3	14.1	4.3	4.9	6.8	7.4	62.4	57.3
Argentina.....	925,131,601	595,681,055	297,637,419	217,635,816	65,843,615	39,894,862	92,588,654	52,533,412	90,751,584	57,664,880
Bolivia.....	411,352,969	37,069,917	39,462,641	28,344,839	161,972	139,385	39,882,761	876,868	7,113,732	4,806,953
Brazil.....	436,352,913	29,630,507	25,615,858	23,734,384	50,653,456	28,822,296	39,882,253	28,631,954	192,239,561	127,408,555
Chile.....	279,146,751	161,327,238	37,296,682	23,734,384	17,109,981	9,733,736	24,061,473	12,692,032	70,886,599	41,095,291
Colombia.....	122,146,577	5,837,020	3,246,890	3,063,337	948,588	637,641	2,616,044	3,640,850	92,532,234	88,926,273
Ecuador.....	17,207,461	16,120,338	461,661	303,337	944,411	1,069,945	1,351,305	1,150,493	7,785,260	7,604,988
Paraguay.....	13,057,973	13,753,169	24,592,068	33,826	485,351	208,443	120,781	215,010	5,408	25,545
Peru.....	134,025,583	96,433,300	17,881,862	17,881,862	1,852,672	1,853,739	8,163,384	7,294,936	44,630,040	37,926,710
Uruguay.....	96,469,537	104,898,770	22,232,315	34,620,900	11,315,665	12,874,622	14,331,435	13,022,987	11,692,091	8,061,947
Venezuela.....	141,349,880	143,366,727	2,049,994	3,568,636	4,218,511	2,813,360	6,891,180	4,949,954	40,848,470	34,265,763
South American republics.....	2,235,911,679	1,592,360,323	459,250,452	355,213,468	159,973,850	98,068,022	190,362,300	124,608,496	558,484,979	407,786,005
Per cent of exports.....	100.0	100.0	20.5	22.3	6.8	6.1	8.5	7.8	24.9	25.6
Total of the 20 republics.....	2,945,255,229	2,113,186,151	546,647,250	428,849,438	183,685,617	123,885,275	238,709,804	163,260,979	1,001,648,103	706,522,373
Per cent of exports.....	100.0	100.0	18.5	20.2	6.2	5.8	8.1	7.7	34.0	33.4

1 Fiscal years ended June 30.

## NICARAGUA

In 1930 the total foreign trade of Nicaragua amounted to \$16,515,718, a 27.1 per cent decrease from the previous year's figure of \$22,669,966. Imports decreased from \$11,797,440 in 1929 to \$8,172,360 in 1930, or 30.7 per cent, and exports from \$10,872,526 to \$8,343,358, or 23.2 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	11, 797	8, 172	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	1, 276	799	10. 8	9. 7
France.....	346	248	2. 9	3. 0
Germany.....	1, 086	736	9. 2	9. 0
United States.....	7, 390	5, 024	62. 6	61. 4
Exports (total).....	10, 873	8, 343	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	399	290	3. 6	3. 4
France.....	894	1, 128	8. 2	13. 5
Germany.....	1, 293	972	11. 8	11. 6
United States.....	5, 754	4, 150	52. 9	49. 7

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	11, 797	8, 172	Petroleum.....	172	137
Cotton goods.....	2, 103	1, 298	Vegetables and products.....	163	118
Food products.....	1, 602	1, 215	Exports (total).....	10, 873	8, 343
Iron and steel manufactures.....	902	578	Coffee.....	5, 903	3, 792
Chemicals, drugs, and medicines.....	531	353	Bananas.....	1, 985	2, 239
Silk goods.....	574	332	Woods (cabinet and dyewoods).....	1, 340	595
Leather and manufactures.....	467	292	Gold.....	434	425
Liquors, wines, and other beverages.....	492	240	Sugar.....	238	366
Gasoline.....	257	209	Hides and skins.....	146	123
Paper and manufactures.....	218	173	Corn.....	247	94
Meat and meat products.....	187	149			
Fibers, vegetable, and manufactures of.....	226	142			

## COSTA RICA

Costa Rica's foreign trade in 1930 reached a value of \$27,177,194, showing a decrease of \$11,184,652, or 29.1 per cent. Imports were valued at \$10,846,590 and exports at \$16,330,604. Compared with 1929, imports show a decline of \$9,317,346, or 46.2 per cent, and exports of \$1,867,306, or 10.2 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	20,164	10,847	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	2,554	1,315	12.6	12.1
France.....	507	314	2.5	2.8
Germany.....	3,532	1,332	17.5	12.2
United States.....	9,682	5,400	48.0	49.7
Exports (total).....	18,198	16,331	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	10,292	9,668	56.5	59.2
France.....	37	64	.2	.3
Germany.....	1,979	1,624	10.8	12.1
United States.....	5,050	4,202	27.7	25.7

Official statistics of imports by commodities for the year 1930 are not yet available, but information from unofficial sources tends to show that the decrease in purchases will be found principally in the general merchandise classification, in articles of luxury, and in materials and machinery for public works.

The principal exports for the years 1929 and 1930 were as follows:

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930
Exports (total).....	18,198	16,331
Coffee.....	12,226	10,419
Bananas.....	4,584	4,376
Cacao.....	985	966
Gold and silver.....	139	226
Lumber.....	116	83
Hides and skins.....	57	65

## PANAMA

The value of the foreign trade in 1930 was \$21,059,928, registering a decrease of \$2,361,562, or 10 per cent, from 1929. The value of imports (\$17,757,920) decreased by \$1,520,068, or 7.8 per cent, and the value of exports (\$3,302,008) by \$841,494, or 20.3 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	19,278	17,758	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	1,636	1,654	8.4	9.3
France.....	532	523	2.7	2.9
Germany.....	1,029	913	5.3	5.1
United States.....	13,154	10,879	68.2	61.2
Exports (total).....	4,144	3,302	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	54	34	1.3	1.0
France.....	22	4	.5	.1
Germany.....	45	24	1.0	.7
United States.....	3,902	3,121	94.1	94.5

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	19, 278	17, 758	Exports (total).....	4, 144	3, 302
Iron and steel and manufactures.....	1, 487	1, 498	Bananas.....	2, 941	2, 008
Cotton textiles and manufactures.....	1, 428	1, 418	Cacao.....	471	831
Machinery and apparatus.....	1, 412	1, 020	Coconuts.....	304	185
Rice.....	464	596	Cattle hides.....	130	80
Wheat flour.....	492	322	Perilla gum.....	50	42
Automobiles.....	161	156	Mother-of-pearl.....	37	19
Automobile accessories.....	201	173	Tagua.....	25	12
Automobile tires.....	380	291			
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	519	279			
Boots and shoes.....	278	212			
Lard.....	419	210			
Building lumber.....	259	198			
Patent medicines.....	208	186			
Cement.....	162	160			
Kerosene.....					

## CUBA

The total foreign trade of the republic in 1930 aggregated \$329,862,-937, consisting of imports to the value of \$162,452,268 and exports of \$167,410,669. The total trade decreased from that of 1929 by \$158,791,938, or 32.4 per cent. Imports decreased by \$53,762,845, or 24.8 per cent, and exports by \$105,029,093, or 38.5 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	216, 215	162, 452	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	12, 021	8, 860	5. 5	5. 4
France.....	8, 990	5, 465	4. 1	3. 3
Germany.....	7, 477	6, 103	3. 4	3. 7
United States.....	127, 051	91, 872	58. 7	56. 5
Exports (total).....	272, 440	167, 411	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	34, 242	25, 470	12. 5	15. 2
France.....	5, 818	4, 047	2. 1	2. 4
Germany.....	2, 251	2, 181	. 8	1. 3
United States.....	208, 754	116, 074	76. 6	69. 3

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	216, 215	162, 452	Exports (total).....	272, 440	167, 411
Cotton manufactures.....	18, 371	13, 420	Sugar.....	204, 849	105, 203
Breadstuffs.....	25, 037	21, 612	Tobacco, unmanufactured.....	26, 513	24, 293
Meat and meat products.....	18, 144	13, 255	Molasses.....	11, 674	11, 407
Mineral oils.....	10, 166	9, 017	Cigars.....	10, 678	8, 110
Vegetables.....	10, 807	7, 609	Copper ore.....	1, 851	1, 934
Machinery and apparatus.....	10, 288	7, 604	Pineapples.....	1, 183	1, 660
Manufactures of iron and steel.....	11, 482	7, 455	Bananas.....	1, 515	1, 542
Sugar bags.....	8, 454	6, 830	Cattle hides.....	1, 665	1, 409
Chemical and pharmaceutical products.....	7, 042	6, 032	Sponges.....	939	956
Milk, condensed.....	4, 527	3, 689	Honey.....	646	654
Automobiles, passenger.....	3, 927	2, 259			
Pine, unplanned.....	2, 740	1, 821			
Coffee.....	3, 560	1, 734			
Boots and shoes.....	1, 819	829			

## DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

The Republic's total foreign trade in 1930 reached a value of \$33,781,060, being a decrease of \$12,684,881, or 27.2 per cent as compared with 1929. Imports to the value of \$15,229,219 decreased by \$7,500,225, or 32.9 per cent, and exports of \$18,551,841 decreased by \$5,184,656, or 21.8 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	22, 729	15, 229	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	1, 389	896	6. 1	5. 8
France.....	586	347	2. 5	2. 2
Germany.....	1, 176	729	5. 1	4. 7
United States.....	13, 457	8, 546	59. 2	56. 1
Exports (total).....	23, 736	18, 552	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	8, 903	7, 329	37. 5	39. 5
France.....	2, 743	2, 457	11. 5	13. 2
Germany.....	940	698	3. 9	3. 7
United States.....	5, 427	4, 368	22. 8	23. 5

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	22, 729	15, 229	Exports (total) .....	23, 736	18, 552
Cotton manufactures .....	3, 263	2, 365	Sugar .....	12, 291	10, 167
Rice .....	2, 115	1, 522	Cacao .....	3, 870	2, 710
Oils, mineral .....	1, 948	1, 345	Coffee .....	2, 444	1, 483
Iron and steel and manufactures .....	1, 400	954	Leaf tobacco .....	1, 381	1, 032
Machinery and apparatus .....	1, 460	913	Molasses .....	689	745
Jute bags .....	613	781	Sugarcane .....	931	743
Wheat flour .....	746	536	Corn .....	437	299
Chemical and pharmaceutical products .....	662	508			
Hides and skins and manufactures of .....	764	444			
Lard .....	784	428			
Wood and manufactures .....	731	362			
Fish .....	462	339			
Paper and manufactures .....	537	323			
Silk and manufactures .....	567	291			
Automobiles .....	443	176			
Meats .....	274	170			

## HAITI

The total foreign trade in 1930 amounted to \$26,986,193 as compared with \$33,961,755 in the previous year, a decrease of \$6,975,562, or 20.5 per cent. Imports in 1930 were \$12,841,626 and exports \$14,144,567. The decrease in imports amounted to \$4,396,296, or 25.5 per cent, and in exports, \$2,579,266, or 15.4 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

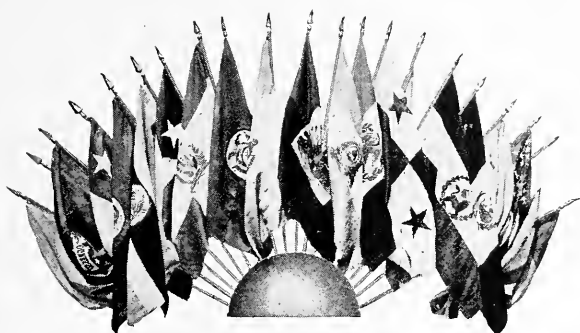
Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	17, 238	12, 842	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom .....	1, 172	937	6. 8	7. 2
France .....	1, 354	848	7. 8	6. 6
Germany .....	755	553	4. 3	4. 3
United States .....	12, 041	9, 001	69. 8	70. 0
Exports (total) .....	16, 724	14, 145	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom .....	815	660	4. 8	4. 6
France .....	9, 247	7, 033	55. 2	49. 7
Germany .....	682	996	4. 0	7. 0
United States .....	1, 306	1, 305	7. 8	9. 2

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	17, 238	12, 842	Exports (total) .....	16, 724	14, 145
Cotton and manufactures .....	3, 114	3, 159	Coffee .....	12, 899	10, 406
Wheat flour .....	2, 995	1, 526	Cotton .....	2, 071	1, 572
Mineral oils .....	991	939	Sugar .....	211	594
Iron and steel and manufactures .....	1, 224	769	Logwood .....	502	488
Meat and meat products .....	850	589	Cacao .....	237	395
Machinery and apparatus .....	814	574	Goatskins .....	137	195
Soap .....	635	562	Molasses .....	125	115
Fish .....	660	513	Cottonseed cake .....	177	104
Automobiles and trucks .....	509	363	Honey .....	112	60
Chemical and pharmaceutical products .....	352	338			
Hides and skins and manufactures .....	359	280			
Rice .....	529	192			





## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Honor to "Hugo Wast."*—Word has reached the Pan American Union that Dr. Gustavo Martínez Zuviria has been appointed director of the National Library in Buenos Aires. He succeeds Dr. Carlos Melo, who was appointed to fill the vacancy caused in 1929 by the death of Dr. Paul Groussac, director of the library for over 40 years. Readers of the BULLETIN are perhaps better acquainted with Dr. Martínez Zuviria under his pseudonym of "Hugo Wast," the name signed to his well-known novels *Desierto de piedra*, *Flor de durazno*, *Pata de zorra*, *Valle negro*, and others. The last named has been published in English under the title *Black Valley*.

*Brazilian Library School.*—By decree of November 11, 1931, Dr. Getulio Vargas, the Provisional President of Brazil, reestablished the Library Science School in the National Library in Rio de Janeiro, which was suspended September 6, 1922. The new school will be under the guidance of the director of the library. The subjects of the 2-year course include: Bibliography, paleography, diplomacy, history of literature, iconography and cartography, and technical library work.

*Accessions.*—During the past month the library added to its shelves 215 volumes and pamphlets, the major portion of which are official publications. Among the nonofficial books, the following are especially noted:

*Paliques de ayer (crónicas).* Por Victor H. Escala. Caracas, Lit. y Tip. Vargas, 1931. 308 p. 12°.

*Don Hermógenes Pérez de Arca, 1845-1902.* Por Santiago Marín Vicuña. Santiago de Chile, Establecimientos Gráficos Balcells & Co., 1931. 211 p. 12°.

*Barros Arana, educador, historiador y hombre público.* Por Ricardo Donoso. Santiago de Chile, Universidad de Chile, 1931. 337 p. 8°.

*Estudios médicos, sociales y morales.* Tomo 1, Estudios médicos. Por Guillermo Puelma. Santiago de Chile, Soc. Imprenta y Litografía Universo, 1931. 409 p. 8°.

*Legislación de minas de Chile.* Por Germán Nienhuser R. [Contains a copy of the Chilean mining code translated into English, 1930.] Santiago de Chile, Imprenta Lagunas & Quevedo Ltda., 1931. 443 p. 8°.

*Velut umbra.* Colección de poesías de Abel González González. Iquique, Imprenta Tip-Top, 1931. 193 p. 12°.

*Bibliografía de don José Toribio Medina (1923-1930).* Por Guillermo Feliú Cruz. Santiago de Chile, Imprenta "La Tracción," 1931. 108 p. 12°.

*Reflexiones de un argentino de la nueva generación.* Por Julio V. González. Madrid, Imp. de J. Pueyo, 1931. 247 p. 12°.

*El instituto social de la Universidad Nacional del Litoral.* Su rol universitario, errores que corrige y anhelos que satisface. Por Rafael Araya. Rosario, Imp. J. B. Ravini, 1930. 269 p. 8°.

*Index Colombia.* Anuario ilustrado e informativo de la República. Publicado por Index Colombia Co., Director: Ignacio M. Sánchez Santamaría. Edición correspondiente a 1929. Barcelona, Tip. La Académica, Herederos de Serra y Russell. 165 p. illus. 4°.

*Palabras y obras.* Por Nicolás B. Amuchástegui. Rosario [Argentina], R. T. Suárez, 1931. 159 p. 8°.

*Introducción a la historia de la cultura en Colombia.* Sinopsis del desarrollo cultural de este país e interpretación de sus causas y dificultades. Datos sobre orientación filosófica ibero-americana. Nómina de algunas publicaciones colombianas importantes. Ciudadanos extranjeros que han contribuido notablemente al progreso de esta República. Obra publicada por Luis López de Mesa. Bogotá, 1930. 203 p. 8°.

*La biografía de Gloria Étzel.* Por Luis López de Mesa. Bogotá, Editorial Minerva, 1929. 173 p. 8°.

*El solterón.* Por Arturo Mejía Nieto. Buenos Aires, Talleres Gráficos Argentinos L. J. Rosso, 1931. 182 p. 12°.

*Ceremonial público.* Por Adolfo J. de Urquiza. Madrid, Talleres Gráficos Herrera, 1932. 560 p. 8°.

*Visión de Anáhuac (1519).* Por Alfonso Reyes, Madrid, Índice. 1923. 64 p. 8°.

*El hombre de la selva,* farsa en tres actos. *El amo de todos,* cuento teatral en un prólogo y dos actos. Teatro de Princivalle, tomo 4. Montevideo, Editorial "La Facultad." 184 p. 8°.

*Bolívar,* extracto de la vida y la obra del padre de la patria, para niños de escuelas primarias. Edición hecha con motivo del primer centenario de la muerte del Libertador. Por Camilo Jiménez. Caracas, Lit. y Tip. Vargas, 1930. 104 p. illus. 8°.

*Fourth Pan American commercial conference.* Pan American Union, Washington, D. C., October 5th-13th, 1931. Final act (with annexes and a summary of the work of the conference). Baltimore, The Sun Book and Job Printing Office, Inc. 1931. 150 p. 8°.

*Al margen de Centro América.* (Miscelánea escotufística.) Por E. Martínez López. Tegucigalpa, Tip. Nacional, 1931. 216 p. 8°.

During the month the library received the following new periodicals:

*La industria nacional colombiana* (Revista mensual, órgano de la Asociación de Industriales de Medellín), Medellín. (M.) [Editada en "La Imprenta" Editorial.] Vol. 1, No. 2, octubre de 1931. 32 p. illus. 9 x 11½ inches.

*The Student of English.* (A magazine devoted to the interests of Latin American students of English.) Apartado 1093, México, D. F. (Bi-mo.) Vol. 1, No. 1, January-February, 1932. 14 p. 8 x 10 inches.

*Boletín del Touring Club Peruano*, Casilla 2219, Lima. 4 p. illus. 13½ x 17 inches.

*El Agricultor* (Órgano oficial de la Confederación de Cámaras Agrícolas y Ganaderas de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos). (Semi-mo.) Av. Uruguay No. 35, México, D. F., México. 24 p. illus. 8 x 11½ inches.

*Habanero.* (Times of Cuba Daily), Calle San Lázaro 95, Habana, Cuba, No. 1, December 16, 1931. (D.) 8 p. illus. 12½ x 19 inches.



## PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

### LEGISLATION

In many countries the provisional government has taken special interest in the revision of its national codes, with a view to making the nation function along modern lines as smoothly as possible.

By decree No. 20348 of August 29, 1931, the Provisional Government of BRAZIL created State, regional, and municipal consultative councils; for the purposes of the decree the provisions for the Federal District are the same as those for the States. Cities whose size and importance warrant, are to have municipal councils; others may, at the discretion of the Federal Interventor, be grouped in zones for which regional councils shall be appointed. The councils shall range in size from three or more for the municipalities to five or more for the States, and the members, who will serve without pay, shall be so appointed that a wide range of interests shall be represented. The duties of the councils shall be to report on the legal and equitable redress possible for the acts of interventors; to give advice on problems submitted by the authorities to which they are responsible; and to suggest to the proper officials such measures as they may deem wise or necessary. Until the question has been submitted to the proper council, interventors and mayors may not impose new taxes or modify existing ones; contract internal loans or issue securities of any kind; increase the number of employees or create new positions if either procedure increases the budget; grant public-service concessions or alter existing ones; settle suits out of court, or pay money on account of claims until the matter has been decided in court; offer tax exemptions or subsidies not included in the budget. Without the previous consent of the consultative council, no State or municipality may contract a foreign loan; issue vouchers to be used as currency; revoke or declare invalid any concession which may be declared illegal or contrary to the public interest; or modify or repeal its constitution or organic law. Regulations for local administration are also included in the decree, which went into effect on October 24, 1931.

The Civil Code of PERU required that all marriages should be performed according to the rites of the Catholic Church; this was amended by law of December 23, 1897, to provide a civil ceremony for non-Catholics. The Council of Government, on October 8, 1930, made the civil ceremony described in that law obligatory for all marriages performed henceforward in the Republic. In order to avoid the occurrence of any situation not specifically provided for in the laws as they

then stood, on August 22, 1931, decree-law No. 7282 was promulgated to summarize and amplify the regulations for marriage in Peru.

The special features of the new law are as follows: Besides birth and residence certificates, the contracting parties must also present a health certificate and, in the case of foreigners, documents attesting that there is no legal impediment to the marriage. Peruvians who are widowed or divorced must show documents proving that they may legally marry again. All the necessary papers must be shown to the official performing the ceremony at least eight days before the marriage is to take place, when the license will be issued in the city or cities of residence of both parties. The decree-law permits the waiving of certain requirements in special cases, provided that they are complied with after the ceremony. An urgency marriage when one of the parties is at the point of death may be performed only to legitimize natural children; such marriages will be considered void, however, if the dead husband should leave other natural children by another woman.

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## AGRICULTURE

Many American nations have recently been faced with the problems arising from world overproduction in their chief products. When such questions are agricultural, the need for new markets and the importance of self-sustenance have encouraged the already marked tendency of the farmer or stock raiser to diversify his activities.

In the United States, for example, the average citizen thinks of turkey as a winter delicacy, especially plentiful at Thanksgiving and Christmas times. Until very recently, turkeys were as seasonable in this country as fresh vegetables a generation ago. Thanks to modern methods of refrigeration, however, the people of the United States have long been able to enjoy fresh fruits and vegetables without regard to the calendar; when the local supply was past, the crops of the South and far West were rushed to their markets and later, with improved transportation facilities, those of other countries to the south—Cuba and Mexico, even Chile and Argentina—were made available. To the long list of out-of-season foodstuffs that the United States imports from the other Americas, the native turkey has now been added. From June through September, 1931, 311,173 plump fowl, weighing over 4,500,000 pounds, have entered this country from ARGENTINA and found a ready market. Since the turkeys are available at a period when there is no competition with the native product, many of the best restaurants have been quick to take advantage of the added opportunity to please their patrons. The quality of the birds and the care with which they are prepared and packed has done much to make them popular. The United States, however, is not the only country to which Argentina is sending turkeys. England



Courtesy of Coldwell & Cia

#### ARGENTINE TURKEYS

Raising turkeys for export is a new industry of Argentina, large numbers being exported to the United States and other countries. Upper: Fine turkeys in a pen. Lower: During four months of 1931 Argentina furnished the markets of the United States with 311,173 birds.

imported over 100,000, weighing nearly 1,350,000 pounds, during the first 10 months of 1931, and neighboring countries also purchased a few, approximately 1,000 pounds. The success of this enterprise opens to the Argentine farmer a new and profitable field.

Another experiment is being carried on in the republic which, if successful, should add materially to the nation's resources. The breeding of fur-bearing animals in a state of semicaptivity, a profitable industry in Canada and parts of the United States, has been

started in the Territory of Neuquen with the introduction of four pairs of silver foxes. The experiment calls for a comparatively large initial capital, but if the animals can become perfectly acclimatized, as seems to have been the case with the first foxes imported, a new and profitable occupation for settlers in the southern regions of Argentina should be developed.

In BRAZIL the state of the international coffee market has been an important factor in the increased interest in other agricultural resources of the country. Oranges have long been an important crop in many sections of the country, but the amount of fruit exported has been small. During the agricultural season 1928-29, for example, over 5,000,000 boxes were grown, but fewer than half a million were exported. Yet the exports of oranges have increased greatly in the last five years; in 1927, only 318,000 boxes were exported from the entire nation, while 787,000 boxes were exported from Santos alone during the first nine months of 1931. Since 933,000 boxes were shipped from Rio de Janeiro during the first 10 months of the year, it was officially estimated that the exports for the whole year would be at least 2,000,000 boxes. It is true that the rate of exchange has been a factor in the 1931 orange exports, but more important have been certain Government regulations which brought about an improvement of the quality of the fruit intended for export.

The Bureau of Agriculture of PARAGUAY is doing a great deal to increase the knowledge of modern agricultural methods and to introduce new crops. Soy beans and sunflower and sesame seeds have been sent to all rural schools for cultivation in the school gardens. Complete instructions for the cultivation of the crops accompanied the seeds, which were sent out with a dual purpose to introduce new crops throughout the country and to train school children in gardening. Seeds have also been sent to the experiment stations and schools of agriculture throughout the country for especial acclimatization studies. In an experiment station conducted by a private company near Puerto Casado, some 47 different varieties of wheat have been planted, in order to determine those best suited to use in developing the vast stretches of uncultivated lands in that region which are a source of potential wealth for the nation.

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## INDUSTRY

Although agriculture and mining are predominant in MEXICO, since its independence the Republic has striven to become a manufacturing nation and for that purpose has always maintained a protective tariff and in general followed a policy of protection to local industry.

To-day Mexico ranks among the three foremost industrial nations of Latin America, Mexico City and its vicinity and Monterrey, the chief railroad center of the Republic, being the two most important Mexican manufacturing centers. While the larger Mexican industries represent investments of foreign capital, the principal increase in manufacturing in Mexico during recent years has been in small plants financed almost entirely by national capital. The preliminary results of the 1930 industrial census show 48,500 industrial establishments with a capital investment of 1,004,644,745 pesos, employing 249,129 workers. Of the 141 branches of industry listed, those in which the capital invested is over 5,000,000 pesos are as follows:

Product or industry	Number of industrial establishments <sup>1</sup>	Capital invested	Number of employees
		<i>Pesos</i>	
Electric plants.....	520	290,049,253	8,143
Cotton textiles.....	542	126,653,855	38,678
Sugar and alcohol.....	137	91,708,475	14,290
Cigarettes and cigars.....	140	34,993,646	3,837
Henequen fiber plants.....	269	30,624,090	5,432
Mineral and lubricating oils.....	2	29,405,510	621
Breweries.....	30	29,359,589	2,542
Iron foundries.....	109	24,432,893	3,828
Grain mills.....	334	22,657,642	1,887
Wool textile mills.....	1,322	20,613,044	5,051
Soap.....	355	18,551,919	2,043
Printing and lithography.....	655	15,294,768	3,549
Paper.....	7	15,228,980	2,207
Coffee mills.....	413	14,787,062	3,356
Vegetable oils.....	109	13,348,899	1,064
Bakeries and pastry shops.....	3,513	11,816,277	7,648
Shoes.....	3,200	11,445,012	9,392
Machine shops.....	953	11,085,910	9,119
Cotton gins.....	144	10,170,847	2,810
Brown sugar and rum.....	3,866	9,835,130	35,012
Hats.....	113	9,779,144	4,301
Cement.....	5	9,632,770	1,307
Tanneries.....	1,427	8,353,420	2,954
Ice plants.....	441	7,670,949	974
Chemical products.....	23	7,293,236	561
Nixtamal mills.....	3,471	7,022,075	5,468
Explosives.....	8	6,952,781	389
Lumber yards.....	147	3,157,271	2,511
Matches.....	16	5,498,863	1,668
Carpenter and cabinet shops.....	4,555	5,460,711	5,500
Jute fiber mills.....	4	5,122,538	1,683
Clothing.....	2,484	5,085,899	5,020

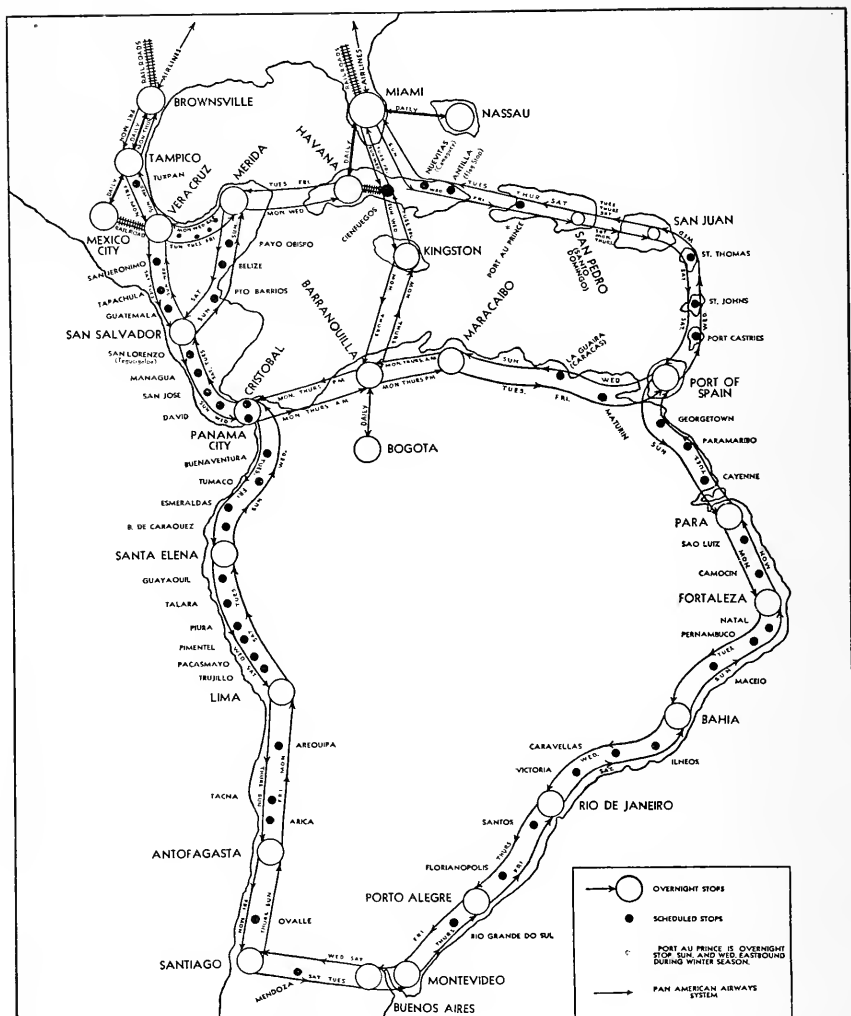
<sup>1</sup> *Estadística Nacional*, organ of the National Statistical Bureau, says in its issue of September, 1931: "For the purposes of the census any enterprise, large or small, producing one or more articles was considered as an 'industrial establishment'; consequently the same industrial establishment may appear several times in the directory if it produces more than one article. The above definition presupposes an absolute differentiation in the industries which does not exist in practice, since many establishments in the Republic produce articles of various classes at the same time."



## COMMUNICATIONS AND TRANSPORTATION

*Airways.*—The last gap in the system of airways which connect all but 2 of the 21 republics of the Western Hemisphere was closed on November 3, 1931, when a flying boat of the Pan American Airways landed in the harbor of Buenos Aires, thereby inaugurating a passenger, mail, and express service between Rio de Janeiro and the Argentine metropolis. This extension of service by the Pan American Airways completes the establishment of an airline down the entire 7,500-mile trade route between the United States and the key cities of Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina. The route extends from Miami through the islands of the West Indies, crosses the equator at the Amazon River, and then parallels the South Atlantic coastline to the principal eastern cities of the southern continent. As shown in the accompanying map, another trunk line starts from Brownsville, Tex., spanning Mexico and Central America, to Panama, following the west coast to Chile, and crossing the Andes to Argentina and Uruguay. The direct line across the Caribbean Sea to Colombia and Venezuela completes the basic routes of this network of 18,500 miles of airways, to-day considered the largest air transport system in the world. Bolivia and Paraguay, the two interior republics not linked by the Pan American Airways system, have air connections through services from La Paz to Arica, Chile, and from Asuncion to Buenos Aires. The capitals of Paraguay and Argentina were formerly connected by the French Aéropostale Line, which was discontinued on April 19, 1931. Since January 1, 1932, this route has been under the bureau of civil aviation of the Argentine Government, which also hopes to create a service linking Buenos Aires with the Bolivian air services already operating from the Argentine border through Cochabamba to La Paz and towns in the northern and eastern part of Bolivia.

The Government of BRAZIL has inaugurated an air-mail service between Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo. Military planes leave the capital on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays at noon and arrive at Sao Paulo three hours later; the return trip is made on Tuesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays. It has been announced that the army air-mail service will be extended 745 miles into the interior of the country, penetrating as far as Goyaz. Another service under consideration is that from Rio de Janeiro to Bello Horizonte. In addition, an extension of the present line from Rio de Janeiro to Sao Paulo is to be made to Curitiba, the capital of the State of Parana, and it is intended to establish eventually an air-mail service from Sao Paulo to Matto Grosso.



Courtesy of Pan American Airways (Inc.)

## AN INTERNATIONAL AIR TRANSPORTATION SYSTEM

Map showing routes of the Pan American Airways.

The Government of the Republic of PANAMA has acquired an air fleet consisting of an amphibian, the *3 de noviembre*, and two airplanes, the *Constitución* and the *República*, which are being used to carry the mail between Panama City and the towns in the interior. The service was inaugurated on November 28, 1931, the anniversary of the Independence of the Isthmus from Spain, a special postage stamp issue being placed on sale by the Government to commemorate the occasion. Two routes are being flown, one along the Pacific coast, stopping at Taboga, Chorrera, Bejuco, Anton, Penonome, Aguadulce, Santiago, David, and Puerto Armuelles; the other along the Atlantic connecting Panama City with Colon and Bocas del Toro. Five young Panamanian aviators have been commissioned as officers in the national police force to pilot the planes.

*Highways.*—Although MEXICO is planning to lessen Federal expenditures during 1932, Government officials realize the importance of continuing highway construction. According to a statement recently given out for publication by the chairman of the National Highway Commission, Señor Vicente Cortes Herrera, Mexico will spend during the present year 18,000,000 pesos (about \$6,480,000) on its road-construction program instead of the 8,000,000 pesos which were originally assigned for that purpose in the 1932 budget. Despite unfavorable economic conditions, the Federal Government intends to complete before 1933 two great trunk highways—the Mexico City-Nuevo Laredo Road, and that from the national capital to Guadalajara, the Republic's second largest city and the capital of the State of Jalisco. The road from Mexico City to Nuevo Laredo is an important link in the Inter-American Highway. It was provisionally opened to traffic on May 11, 1931, in view of the need for communications in that part of the country, and in order to use the provisional road as a means for the transportation of materials and machinery to be used in the construction of the permanent surface. Since its opening, intensive work has been carried on for the completion and improvement of the temporary portions, so that the entire road may be traveled upon at any time of the year. The Government's augmented 1932 budget also includes oiling the greater part of the road from Mexico City to Acapulco, a picturesque Pacific coast port which the early Spaniards used as their New World base for marine commerce with the Orient.

For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1932, \$15,000,000 has been appropriated for road construction in the Republic of CUBA. Cuba already has a splendid system of modern highways covering nearly the entire island. The great Central Highway, stretching from Pinar del Rio in the western part of the island to Santiago on the eastern extremity, connects all important commercial centers and is becoming more popular with tourists each year. Of the 1931-32 appropriation

\$1,000,000 is to be expended in the construction of a new highway, about 12 miles long, connecting Habana with the town of General Machado, where an airport is located.

*Telephones.*—The longest telephone line in ARGENTINA was inaugurated on September 15, 1931. It connects the cities of Mendoza, Province of Mendoza, and Concordia, Province of Entre Rios, and has a total length of 1,433 kilometers or approximately 890 miles, divided into several sections as follows: Mendoza-San Luis, 167 miles; San Luis-Villa Mercedes, 62 miles; Villa Mercedes-Rufino, 168 miles; Rufino-Rosario, 175 miles; Rosario-Santa Fe, 111 miles; Santa Fe-Parana, 21 miles; Parana-Villaguay, 105 miles; Villaguay-Concordia, 81 miles. Four different companies participate in the new telephone service, the Compañía Argentina de Teléfonos, the Compañía Telegráfico-Telefónica Nacional, the Sociedad Telefónica de Santa Fe, and the Compañía Entrerriana de Teléfonos de Paraná y Concordia. These companies own 17 telephone exchanges in the Province of Mendoza, 13 in the Province of San Luis, 36 in the Province of Cordoba, 36 in the Territory of La Pampa, 62 in the Province of Santa Fe, and 79 in the Province of Entre Rios.

A long-distance telephone service connecting the capital of COLOMBIA, Bogota, with the Republic's principal port in the Pacific, Buenaventura, was inaugurated by the Compañía Telefónica Central on October 1, 1931. The line is 357 miles in length and serves 28 cities and towns. The inaugural ceremonies of the international telephone service between COLOMBIA, ARGENTINA, CHILE, and URUGUAY took place at the Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs at Bogota on November 26, 1931.

A similar ceremony also took place in Asuncion, PARAGUAY, on the occasion of the inauguration of a radiotelegraphic service with Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA, on November 17, 1931.

Radiotelephonic communication between the UNITED STATES and BRAZIL was inaugurated on December 18, 1931, with ceremonies in the office of the Secretary of State in Washington and in the Brazilian Foreign Office in Rio de Janeiro.

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## ART, SCIENCE, AND EDUCATION

IN ARGENTINA, where public education has long been an object of close attention, projects for modern educational development continue to be adopted and put into effect. Among the various reports recently made public may be noted that of the National Council of Education on the state of public instruction during 1931. It contains a table giving the figures on expenditures for public education, which range

from 27,086,220 pesos paper for the Province of Buenos Aires, with its 2,126 schools, to 347,588 pesos paper for La Rioja, which has only 18. The National Council of Education further states that because of present economic conditions it is impossible for the Government to carry out all its plans for public instruction, but suggests that provincial authorities should take certain steps, such as the introduction of short courses, to prepare the way for future progress. The report states that public primary education owes its present development to the Government's foresight in assuring revenues for this specific purpose, the most important being the inheritance tax which has been adopted by various Provinces. Of the 2,108,286 children between 5 and 13 years of age throughout the Republic, 510,754 are not in school. School attendance in the Province of Buenos Aires is compulsory for children from 8 to 14 years of age. In Jujuy, La Rioja, Santiago del Estero, and Tucuman, the age is from 7 to 14 years.

The republic of COSTA RICA has always taken great pride in the national interest in education, and figures published by a leading newspaper of the capital show that there has been no diminution in that interest. During the 1930 school year more than 50,000 students attended the public schools throughout the country, an increase of nearly 15,000 over the enrollment in 1920. The number of schools has grown during that decade from 411 to 505, and that of teachers from 1,346 to 1,875. The teaching profession is attracting the young people of the nation in larger numbers, for there were 689 students in the normal schools in 1930, more than twice as many as in 1920.

Early in November, 1931, the Ministry of Public Instruction of GUATEMALA sent a notice to all heads of families, explaining at some length the purposes of Parent-Teachers Associations and urging cooperation with the work of the ministry. There are two important functions which the ministry feels the Parent-Teachers Associations should perform, one of serving as a consultative body, the other of collaborating with the school authorities in carrying out approved educational methods. The ministry is also encouraging the organization of teachers into groups for the study of educational problems.

A similar interest was displayed in the neighboring Republic of EL SALVADOR, where a National Parents Association was created by decree of the President issued on November 4, 1931. The association was founded especially to complement kindergartens and primary education throughout the country by considering the particular problems of the children, the teachers, and the school. There will be a central council located in San Salvador, departmental and district councils for the larger political divisions, and one or more local councils in towns that are not district capitals. Each council will be autonomous in dealing with the problems peculiar to its own territory, but

all will be under the jurisdiction of the central council in matters of general policy and finance. The decree provides that the chief executive officers shall preferably be women, since the school is considered to be the lengthened shadow of the home. For the welfare of school children, the councils are urged to provide suitable recreation on holidays, promote sports, provide school meals, keep track of health conditions, arrange for proper medical care when the parents are unable to furnish it, and encourage special training for gifted students. Full cooperation is to be given the teacher, personally and professionally, and any attempt to inject politics into school administration vigorously combated. School buildings are to be inspected to insure their being kept in sanitary condition, profiteering in school supplies is to be prevented, and educational and patriotic school celebrations are to be encouraged.

In PERU the interest of the Council of Government in educational matters is manifest in the decree issued on October 3, 1931, designed to give stability to the teaching profession by the creation of councils of investigation. The councils are consultative bodies whose primary function is to safeguard the rights of the teacher, especially until after the legislature shall have finished its revision of the Organic Law of Public Instruction. There are to be one central council and several provincial councils, on which will be represented educational authorities, teachers, and parents. To the councils will be referred by the proper authorities all cases dealing with the transference of teachers from one school to another as a disciplinary measure, their suspension, or their dismissal.

The desire to further education is by no means confined to the governments of the respective American republics. In HAITI, for example, there was formed in November an organization called "The League for Instructing Illiterate Laborers." Members of the league will give free courses of 40 lessons, the classes to be held three evenings a week, to all laborers who wish to learn to read and write. The courses will be given not only in Port-au-Prince, but in any other city or town where there may be a demand for them, and the league will not disband until its aims have been fulfilled.

Another evidence of interest in special fields of education was the opening in MEXICO CITY on November 13, 1931, of the School for Specialists in Cooperative Organization, founded by one of the leading political parties. The course of study, an intensive one of six terms of two months each, was designed to train those wishing to become organizers, technical advisers, or directors of national cooperative societies. The fact that the school opened with an enrollment of 98 students shows the importance of the subject to the public mind.

Student organizations are increasingly influential bodies, especially in Latin American nations. It is therefore quite natural that the National Student Federation of Mexico should be the recipient of many requests for information from university students in Central and South American countries who wish to continue their education in the northern republic. The foreign students were particularly desirous of learning what recognition the Mexican universities would give to degrees granted by institutions in other countries. The federation has submitted the question to the University Council, and it seems probable that the course hitherto followed will not be changed, that is, credit will be given for work recognized in the student's native country, but in addition the Mexican requirement in national history and geography must be fulfilled.

A Pan American Student Conference, to which students from all the American nations have been invited, has been planned for April 11 to 14, 1932, at the University of Miami, Coral Gables, Fla. The conference will close on Pan American Day, with exercises inter-American in character.

On August 13, 1931, Provisional President Uriburu issued a decree establishing the ARGENTINE Academy of Letters, to be composed of 20 members. The new organization has four functions: To unify and direct studies of the national language and literature; to have jurisdiction over all literary prizes granted in the Republic; to stimulate the national theater to be an important factor in popular education and culture; and to guard the correctness and purity of the language. The charter members of the academy, named in the same decree, are Octavio R. Amadeo, Enrique Banchs, Arturo Capdevila, Joaquín Castellanos, Atilio Ciappori, Leopoldo Díaz, J. Alfredo Ferreyra, Mgr. Gustavo Franceschi, Manuel Gálvez, Alberto Gerchunoff, Leopoldo Herrera, Carlos Ibarguren, Enrique Larreta, Leopoldo Lugones, Arturo Marasso, Calixto Oyuela, Clemente Ricci, Ricardo Rojas, Carlos Saavedra Lamas, and Juan B. Terán.

A later decree of October 28 approved the statutes and by-laws of the academy. These provide that the members, who shall hold office for life, must be Argentine citizens distinguished for their contribution to literature or their studies in language, and that the body shall be self-perpetuating. At least 16 of the members must be residents of Buenos Aires. Corresponding members may be elected by the academy; for them Argentine citizenship and residence in the capital are not prerequisite. The officers of the academy are the president, who is the official representative of the organization, and the secretary general. The regular term of office is three years, but the first officers will hold office only until the first meeting in 1933. On November 3 the academy met for the first time after the approval of statutes and elected Señor Oyuela president and Señor Marasso secretary.

The First Conference of CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES is being planned for March 20 to 27, 1932. The meetings will be held in San Jose, Costa Rica, and attended by leaders in intellectual circles of the nations bordering on the Caribbean. The conference will be entirely unofficial in character; this fact, while it will not give the weight of governmental sanction to any of the proceedings, will make for greater frankness in discussion and free interchange of ideas. Representatives of more than 12 nations are expected to be present, including such writers and thinkers as Horacio Blanco Fombona, Venezuela, Joaquín García Monge, Costa Rica, one of the initiators of the conference, Emilio Roig de Leuchsen, Cuba, and John Dewey and Waldo Frank, the United States. The main purpose of the conference is to lay the foundation for a more perfect rapprochement between the thinking population of the participating nations, to establish a "free tribune for frank expression of these feelings which must be brought to light in order to attain a true understanding of the ideals of the New World."

In ARGENTINA, Buenos Aires will be the seat of at least two international gatherings during 1932, in addition to the meeting of the American Institute of International Law. (See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for January, 1932.) From July 4 to 11 the first South American Congress of Electrical Engineers plans to meet for the interchange of ideas between specialists in the field of applied electricity. The Argentine engineer and scientist, Señor Nicolás Moreno, is to be the presiding officer of the congress, which will be divided into 15 sections. The subjects to be discussed include electricity and magnetism; the generation and distribution of electrical energy; electricity in industry; light; heat; electrochemistry; and commercial, agricultural, domestic, and medical uses of electricity. Although the congress is definitely continental in character, it is hoped to have the collaboration of foreign specialists. During the congress, an exhibition of electrical machinery and apparatus will be held.

The Sixth International Cold Storage Congress will open its sessions on August 27, 1932, and hold meetings in Buenos Aires for a week. From September 5 to 10, visits have been planned to the cold storage plants in the capital, La Plata, and Rosario, as well as to the most important estancias of the Province of Buenos Aires. On September 17, 1931, the President of Argentina issued a decree ratifying the Paris Convention of 1920 by which the International Cold Storage Institute was created.



## PUBLIC HEALTH AND SOCIAL WELFARE

*Child welfare institutions in Buenos Aires and Montevideo.*—Few cities on the American Continent have shown in recent years greater interest in the prevention of disease and alleviation of suffering among children than have Buenos Aires and Montevideo. Interestingly enough, the results which they have obtained are not the work of any one institution or group but rather of many institutions and groups working in complete accord and cooperation with the government of each country, private initiative serving fields which public action failed to cover.

One of the French delegates in attendance at the International Medical Congress recently held in Montevideo as a part of the celebrations commemorating the centenary of the oath to the Constitution, described these activities in an account published in the July and October, 1931, editions of the *Boletín del Instituto Internacional Americano de Protección a la Infancia*.

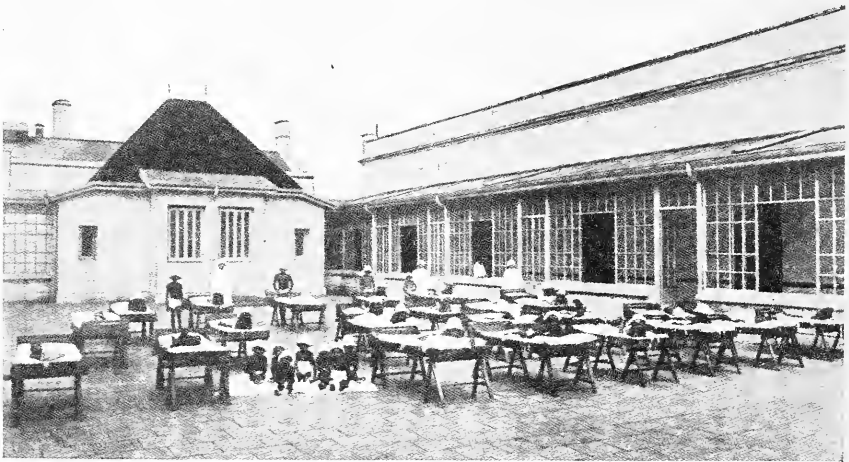
The child welfare institutions in Buenos Aires, he states, include hospitals, preventoriums, seaside colonies, a foundling home, news-boys' home, orphanages, nurse inspection service, school inspection service, and clinics. One of the outstanding child welfare activities in both cities is the treatment and prophylaxis of tuberculosis. In Buenos Aires this campaign centers around the Tornú Hospital. While the hospital receives both adults and children, some of its most important work is done among the children. Aside from its regular function of providing hospitalization for patients suffering from tuberculosis, the institution does much effective work through its medical inspectors, visiting nurses, and dispensaries. As many as 2,500 persons have been treated during one year in the hospital dispensaries alone and many more in the other nine maintained in different sections of the city.

The children's service is carried on chiefly through the maternity ward and the home placement department of the hospital, the Roca Preventorium, and the Necochea seaside colony. In order to avoid contagion, children of parents suffering from tuberculosis are isolated from their mother at birth and placed in carefully selected private homes, where they remain two years. They are then sent to the Roca Preventorium where they are given a home and education until they are 12 years old.

The Necochea seaside colony, established in 1928, provides a place where groups of children between the ages of 8 and 12, selected by the different dispensaries, may spend a short time in healthful surroundings.

Hospitals in Buenos Aires having special wards and services for children include institutions such as the Rawson, Ramos Mejía, Clinical, Fernández, Teodoro Álvarez, Cancer, Alvear, Muñiz, and French Hospitals. The Clinical Hospital, which is supported by the Government and is a part of the Medical School, has a nursery of 24 beds. The children's ward in the Teodoro Álvarez Hospital has 45 beds, a number which, however, will probably soon be increased. The majority of the cases of contagious diseases are treated in the Muñiz Hospital, which receives patients of all ages and both sexes.

Undoubtedly the institution affording hospitalization for the greatest number of children is the Children's Hospital. It is staffed by more than 100 physicians and has accommodations for 700 patients. Its multiple services include general and special medical



CHILDREN'S SUN BATHS AT AN ARGENTINE SANITARIUM

treatment, surgery, and polyclinics. An especially interesting section is the ward for contagious diseases, where each child is isolated from the others in a small glass-walled compartment. Special features are the school for nurses, a primary school for children suffering from chronic diseases, and a fine library. In its public clinics hundreds of children are treated daily by diathermy, massage, electrotherapy, X rays, and ultra-violet rays.

The French Hospital, whose foundation dates back a century, is one of a group of public welfare activities being carried on by the French colony in Argentina. The same group also maintains an orphanage for boys.

Other important institutions in the city are the Foundling and the Newsboys' Homes. The former occupies a large building erected

about 20 years ago. Through its offices about 1,300 children are placed in private homes each year. While in the institution the children receive expert care—medical, orthopedic, and surgical treatment are provided in the home for them, while a public clinic is maintained for others.

The Newsboys' Home renders a valuable service to the homeless waif who sells papers and lottery tickets on the streets of the city. Founded a little over three years ago, this institution is doing an extremely important work; through its efforts the boys are clothed, fed, educated, and given medical and dental care. Boys who would not otherwise think of going to school now attend classes in reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, English, and typewriting. The home also maintains a circulating library which has more than 200 young patrons. In its dining hall over 1,100 meals are served monthly. The meals are not free; each boy pays a nominal sum for what he receives. Only the most wholesome food is served; the menu usually includes soup, potatoes or other vegetables, meat, a side dish, rolls and milk.

Another important group of activities is that centering around the child welfare institutes. Under the control of headquarters situated in the down-town section of the city, there are 23 of these institutions which have as their purpose the instruction of the mother in the proper care and diet of her child. Each institute has a competent staff under the direction of a pediatrician. In connection with the institutes there are also 18 dispensaries for young children and five infirmaries where the children may receive hospitalization if the case demands. All the dispensaries have diet kitchens which provide the children attending them proper nourishment.

The school medical inspection service of Buenos Aires serves as a model for all others throughout the Republic. Its physicians are constantly visiting the schools, passing upon the condition of the buildings, examining the pupils to avoid the spread of communicable diseases and determine abnormalities, and holding clinics at stated times for the treatment of the teeth, and eye, ear, throat, and skin diseases.

In Montevideo, child welfare activities have taken channels similar to those in Buenos Aires, the apparent differences being largely ones of detail. There, as in the Argentine capital, a vigorous campaign is being waged against tuberculosis. It is being carried on largely through the vaccination service, the dispensaries, the child placement service, the Fermín Ferreira and Gallinal Hebert Hospitals, the preventorium, and the Children's Home.

In 1925 a laboratory was established in Montevideo by the National Bureau of Public Welfare for the preparation of antituberculosis serum, and since then the work of vaccination has been carried on

with very promising results. At present there are nine antituberculosis dispensaries located in various parts of the city. Each dispensary is provided with X rays and a laboratory, although the more involved laboratory work is done in the central dispensary.

Children who have rickets, are anaemic, or show a disposition for the disease, receive treatment in a vacation colony or preventorium; in some cases the child is placed in a family living in the country or at the seaside, as the physician in charge of the case may advise.

The Gallinal Hebert Seaside Hospital, which, located at Carrasco not far from Montevideo, is easily accessible to the parents of the small patients, has two sections, one for surgical tuberculosis cases, the other for prophylactic treatment.

As in Buenos Aires the children born to parents suffering from tuberculosis are removed at birth and taken to the Children's Home. This institution also receives other children under 5 years of age who come from homes where there is a case of tuberculosis or who are themselves predisposed to the disease.

The League Against Tuberculosis also maintains a preventorium with beds for 110 children between the ages of 6 and 12 years. Children taken to this institution usually remain three months, but may stay longer at the advice of a physician. A primary school is conducted in connection with it, so that no child is retarded in his studies by the necessity of receiving treatment there. The preventorium likewise has a public dispensary in which from 15 to 30 children are treated each day; it also maintains a canteen where the wives of men suffering from tuberculosis may secure bread, meat, and milk free of charge each day.

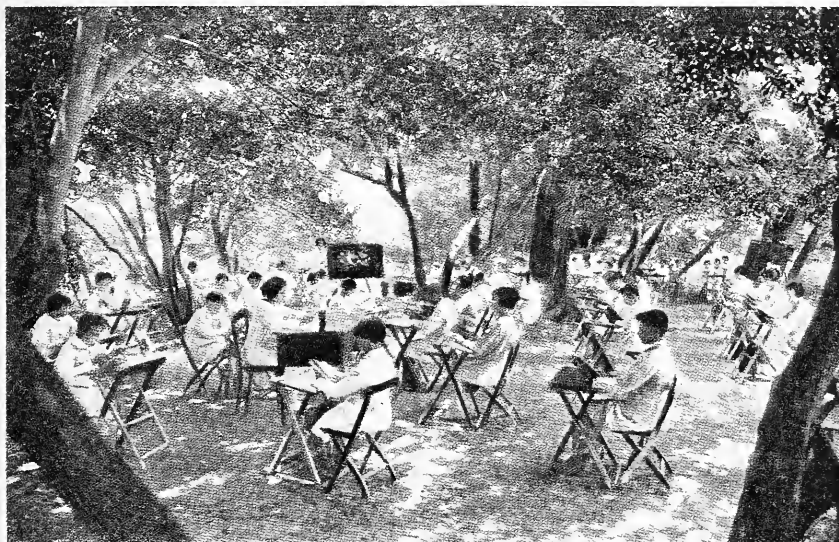
The Fermín Ferreira Hospital cares for advanced tuberculosis cases, treating sufferers from all Departments of the Republic. It has accommodations for 500 patients but often nearly 900 have been under treatment at one time. The hospital offers a special course for physicians and medical students, and while its own work is concerned with the treatment of adults, it does much in this way to diffuse information on the subject and indirectly to assist in the treatment and prevention of the disease among children.

Other child welfare institutions are the Dr. Pedro Visca Hospital, the Foundling Home, the Dámaso Larrañaga Children's Home, dispensaries and milk stations, school lunch rooms, the seaside colony, open-air schools, and the home visiting service.

The Dr. Pedro Visca Hospital, which is maintained by the Bureau of Public Welfare, provides hospitalization for about 250 children and does much excellent work through its public clinics. The various departments of the hospital include an isolation ward with individual rooms, a dental laboratory, two operating rooms, a solarium, a pharmacy where medicine is distributed free, a gymnasium, and laboratories for heat and light treatment.

The Foundling Home, also maintained by the National Bureau of Public Welfare, is located in the downtown section of the city. Besides acting as a receiving home where abandoned children can be cared for, the home renders a particularly valuable service through its day nursery, employment bureau for unmarried mothers, and school of nursing.

Connected with the Foundling Home there are nine dispensaries where medical treatment and food are given free. These, located in various sections of the city, care for an average of 7,000 children each year. Prenatal clinics and a mother's canteen are also features of these institutions.



A TYPICAL CLASS IN ONE OF MONTEVIDEO'S OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS

The Dámaso Larrañaga Children's Home has now more than 5,000 children under its care. Three hundred of this number are housed in the home and the remainder have been placed with families. Children enter the home at the age of 3 and may remain until they are 21. While there they receive an education and are given instruction in some trade which will make them self-supporting when they leave the home.

Through the efforts of the Uruguayan Child Welfare Association a number of the underdeveloped children in the public schools of the city are being provided several wholesome meals each day; one meal is served before school and the other after school. This organization also maintains a nutrition clinic where mothers receive instruction in the purchase and preparation of inexpensive nourishing food for the preschool child.

In order to provide for those children whose health does not show sufficient improvement as a result of the meals served in the school lunch rooms, the Child Welfare Association has opened a seaside colony. An old summer residence on a hill overlooking the beach at Pocitos was secured and remodeled for the purpose, and the services of a competent staff, including a physician, primary teacher, and physical instructor, were engaged. During 1929, the first season the colony was maintained, 500 children had an opportunity to spend several weeks at the shore. Children attending the colony assemble each morning at the school lunch room and ride to Pocitos by street car. Their program for the day includes breakfast, medical examinations, classes, gymnastic exercises, bathing, games, lunch, a rest period, story-telling hour, nature study, and hikes. Before they start back to their homes they are served a dinner.

Much important welfare work is also done by the Uruguayan Child Welfare Association in its home visiting and other special services carried on through the various commissions maintained by the organization. During the year 1929, the Commission on Legislation legalized 1,545 marriages, the Infants Commission distributed 749 cribs and 17,206 articles of clothing, and the Pre-Natal Commission gave material assistance to 493 mothers.

The open-air schools provide an opportunity for subnormal children to secure all the benefits of a primary education while undergoing treatment for their physical defects. These schools, which are a part of the regular municipal educational system, are located in spacious grounds and hold all their classes in the open air except when prevented by inclement weather. The children remain at the school all day; there they receive two nourishing meals, are given time for supervised rest and recreation, and follow a program of study which has been modified to include elements conducive to the development of their weak bodies.

*Public health legislation.*—January 26, 1932, marked the close of the first six months of health administration in CHILE under the new Sanitary Code which was published on May 28, 1931, and formally put into effect 60 days later. While the new code abrogates the code of October 13, 1925, and other existing legislation on the subjects which it covers, it does not discard earlier procedures which had proved successful. Many of the former provisions are retained and the remainder merely modified or modernized to conform to present economic and social conditions in the Republic.

Responsibility for the enforcement of the code and the organization and regulation of the National Public Health Service is entrusted to the Director General of Public Health. It is also his duty to formulate, subject to the approval of the President, the general policies to

be followed in the enactment of municipal health regulations; to supervise the revision of the national pharmacopœia every five years; to take charge of the inspection of dwellings, institutions, and other places in accordance with the provisions of the law; to collect and compile public health information; and to authorize the establishment of private medical and welfare services such as polyclinics, hospitals, asylums, and other related institutions, and pharmacies and laboratories for the preparation of pharmaceutical or biological products. The Director General of Health has absolute powers in all matters under his jurisdiction.

Each Province of the Republic constitutes a sanitary unit and has its own sanitary director who is assisted by a public health physician. In this way it is hoped to coordinate public health programs throughout the country, maintain greater vigilance over health conditions, and make it more easily possible for the national health service to meet the needs of different sections of the Republic. The provincial sanitary director is recognized as the principal representative of the National Public Health Service within the Province. His duties consist in the supervision and direction of public health activities, the enforcement of sanitary laws and regulations, the drafting of plans for sanitary campaigns and organization of health services, the carrying on of demographic research, and the proposal of sanitary legislation for districts which for any reason may require special laws.

The issuance and enforcement of regulations on local public matters which have no particular relation to the health of other sections of the Republic, such as the sanitary inspection of dwellings, buildings, markets, bakeries, hotels, and lunch rooms; the collection and disposal of waste; the maintenance of fumigation services; and the establishment of public parks and playgrounds, is delegated to the municipal Governments.

According to the code, the National Public Health Service shall establish centers for vaccination, child welfare, and prenuptial examination services. These will preferably function as a part of the general hospital services. In those cities where a need for economy or for the simplification of the work makes it necessary, however, they may be carried on in cooperation with public or private institutions engaged in similar activities.

Special measures assure the protection of the mother and child. Free medical attention will be afforded for expectant mothers and for children of the indigenous population in the Government public welfare institutions; all children of school age will receive the benefits of preventive medicine. Private schools also are required to retain the services of a physician should they not already be doing so. In the larger cities school children will be given free dental treatment.

The reporting of cases of communicable diseases, the isolation of persons suffering from such a disease, the maintenance of fumigation services, hospital inspection, and the observation of persons exposed to contagious diseases are obligatory. The code also specifies special measures to be taken in case of epidemics. Children must be vaccinated against smallpox before they are a year old. The diffusion of health education is placed in charge of the National Public Health Service. Actual contacts with the public will be made largely through the public health nurses, who will instruct the people in the rules of good health and show them how to benefit from the medical services placed at their disposal. Dispensaries for the free treatment of venereal diseases will be established in all the larger cities, and all hospitals will be required to set aside a certain number of beds for patients suffering from such diseases. The campaign against tuberculosis will be carried on through an organization especially created by the Government for the purpose.

International sanitary measures, chiefly those for the prevention of communicable diseases likely to be carried from one country to another, also form a part of the code. Arrangements are made regarding frontier transit and the cases designated in which extraordinary vigilance is to be observed.

The final section of the law includes regulations on food products, urban and rural sanitation, industrial hygiene, and the practice of the medical and other related professions.

Special regulations on the production, manufacture, registration, storage, sale, or importation of medicines and foods will be issued by the President of the Republic. The preparation, sale, possession for sale, or use in any form of contaminated, adulterated, or mislabeled medicines and food products is prohibited. In localities where there is no adequate provision for the medical examination by the municipal health authorities of persons engaged in the preparation or distribution of food products, examinations will be made by the National Public Health Service once every three months. Employees found to be suffering from any communicable disease shall immediately be prohibited from working. No pharmaceutical product may be imported or prepared in the Republic without the authorization of the General Bureau of Public Health. Persons engaged in the sale or distribution of these products must register with the bureau. Upon the recommendation of the General Bureau of Health, the President of the Republic may regulate the prices of pharmaceutical products considered indispensable for the public health or for the existence of animal or plant life. The importation, manufacture, distribution, consumption, or possession of opium or cocaine, their compounds and derivatives, and other narcotics is subject to special regulation by the President of the Republic.



Only persons holding a degree from the University of Chile may practice medicine, surgery, dentistry, pharmacy, veterinary medicine, midwifery, nursing, or any other related professions. No one will be permitted to practice as both physician and pharmacist. The technical direction of hospitals, clinics, asylums, sanatoriums, preventoriums, dispensaries, and similar institutions, irrespective of whether they are maintained by public or private funds, must be in charge of a graduate physician. No practicing physician may own stock or share in the profits of firms preparing or selling medicines or biological products used in the prevention or treatment of disease. Those already owning such securities, however, will be allowed to retain them. Medicines or pharmaceutical products, medicinal mineral water, cosmetics, dentifrices, hair dyes, insecticides, and disinfectants may be marketed only by authorized firms. Medicines may be sold only in pharmacies or drug stores. All firms engaging in the preparation of medicines or pharmaceutical products shall be under the direction of a registered pharmacist. The preparation of biological and biochemical products, serums, or vaccines shall be in charge of physicians. Dentists may not perform surgical operations outside the realm of their profession, produce general anæsthesia, or give prescriptions for medicines listed as dangerous in the national pharmacopœia.

Regulations concerning the practice of pharmacy have also recently been promulgated by the Provisional Government of BRAZIL in a decree of September 8, 1931. Under this regulation, all persons wishing to practice pharmacy in the Republic will be required to hold a diploma in pharmaceutics from an official school of pharmacy or other recognized educational institution issuing such degrees. Degrees from foreign universities will be recognized on the same basis. Physicians and their wives are forbidden to hold stock in a pharmacy within the district where the doctors practice medicine except in the case of women legally entitled to act as pharmacists by virtue of a pharmaceutical degree. Hospitals, psychopathic institutions, cooperative organizations, sanatoriums, factories, business firms, and institutions supported by religious and lay organizations are also prohibited from maintaining public pharmacies.

Changes in the administrative public-health service of EL SALVADOR and URUGUAY have been effected through recent legislation. By virtue of an Executive decree issued on November 14, 1931, the Department of Social Welfare and Public Health of El Salvador has been made a bureau in the Department of the Interior. In Uruguay, a Board of Public Health has been created to take charge of the work formerly done by the National Council of Public Welfare, the National Council of Hygiene and the Institute for the Prophylaxis of Syphilis.

The Board of Public Health will be composed of seven members, who will be appointed by the National Administrative Council.

Regulations for various public officers and services were issued by the Governments of CHILE and COSTA RICA. In the latter nation and in VENEZUELA special measures were also taken for the improvement of health in general.

A regulation on the maintenance of polyclinics was issued by the Ministry of Social Welfare of Chile on October 6, 1931. As a result of this measure no polyclinic may function without the authorization of the General Bureau of Public Health and must otherwise conform to the provisions of the National Sanitary Code.

Health legislation of the Costa Rican Government included a law on the function and organization of the service of public-health physicians and an Executive decree on the Board of Administration of the Bureau of Narcotics which was entrusted with the exclusive sale of narcotics by a law of September 29, 1930.

The Costa Rican Government has also issued a decree providing for the intensification of the campaign against malaria in zones of the country affected, by the free distribution of quinine to school children, teachers, employees of the customs service and of the Bureau of Hookworm and Malaria Control, and patients under treatment in the local public-health clinics. Property owners in these regions are already obliged to furnish free quinine to their employees in accordance with a law of December 6, 1930. Other articles of the decree authorize the sale of quinine by the Government to property owners and public-welfare organizations at cost and provide for the presentation of illustrated lectures and the distribution of printed matter for the purpose of instructing the public in means of controlling the disease.

In order to encourage the interest of the children in the observance of the elementary rules of good health and hygiene, the Minister of Public Instruction of Venezuela issued a resolution on October 2, 1931, providing for the organization of health brigades in all the schools of the Republic. According to provisions of this act, the direction of the new societies will be entirely in the hands of the children; those having the highest scholastic standing in each school will automatically become the officers of their respective group. Thus the children will learn the importance of health, the meaning of different symptoms of disease, the value of correct diet and sleep, the necessity of physical examinations, cleanliness rules for the home, the proper care of the eyes, ears, nose, and throat, and measures for preventing malaria, hookworm disease, dysentery, skin diseases, tuberculosis, and smallpox.

## NECROLOGY

Ricardo Rendón, one of the most promising artists of the younger generation of COLOMBIA, died suddenly at Bogota on October 28, 1931. Señor Rendón, who was still in his early thirties, had won an enviable reputation both at home and abroad as an artist of marked originality and a caricaturist of rare ability and penetration. Decrees deploring his early death were issued by the national government and by the city of Bogota.

By the death of Dr. Luis Toledo Herrarte, GUATEMALA has lost a physician of rare endowments and a statesman of renown. In the sphere of medicine, Dr. Toledo Herrarte fulfilled the promise of his student days in Paris by becoming a leader of his profession in his own country and an eminent professor in the School of Medicine. In public life, too, Dr. Toledo Herrarte was prominent; especially notable were his activities as Minister of Foreign Affairs where the brilliant physician displayed other facets of his many-sided genius, and as delegate to the Fourth International Conference of American States held in Buenos Aires in 1910.

On November 20, 1931, Andrés Mata, an outstanding man of letters and diplomat of VENEZUELA, died in Paris. His death is a great loss to Venezuelan literature, in which he distinguished himself as poet and journalist. Even before his first book of collected verse appeared in 1896, he enjoyed a high reputation as a writer among all classes; fellow artists appreciate the fineness of his æsthetic tastes and the mastery he displayed of his chosen medium; the general public enjoyed the note of deep feeling with which he expressed his truly poetic soul. The founder and part owner of the daily newspaper *El Universal* of Caracas, Señor Mata has also had a successful journalistic career. At the time of his death, the noted poet was councilor of the Venezuelan legation at the Vatican.

Early in December Justin Élie, of HAITI, internationally famous pianist and composer, died in New York. Monsieur Élie was educated in Europe and early won for himself a place of renown as a pianist through his sympathetic interpretation and mastery of tonal shading, but it is as a composer that he will undoubtedly be longest remembered. Among his numerous compositions which include tone poems, songs, exquisitely harmonized dances, and more ambitious symphonic selections, one pauses to recall the unforgettable *Chants de la Montagne*, the *Babylon* suite of four oriental sketches; the *Kiskaya*, *Suite Aborigène*, based on Peruvian folklore, the finished orchestral work, *Cleopatra*, and the colorful *Dances Tropicales* with their rhythmic Haitian and Cuban motifs.

# SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

REPORTS RECEIVED TO JANUARY 16, 1932

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA		
Organizing committee of Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference.	1931 Nov. 5	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Argentina, Nov. 15 to 28, 1931.	Dec. 3	Do.
Attitude of the Provisional Government with reference to the importation of pedigreed livestock.	Dec. 12	A. M. Warren, consul at Buenos Aires.
BRAZIL		
Inauguration of a stock exchange market in Porto Alegre, Brazil.	Nov. 4	A. Whidden Magnitzky, vice consul at Porto Alegre.
Review of commerce and industries, quarter ended Sept. 31, 1931.	Nov. 5	Lawrence P. Briggs, consul at Bahia.
Coffee convention to be held in Sao Paulo to study new plans for the coffee defense policy.	Nov. 25	Arthur G. Parsloe, vice consul at Santos.
CHILE		
Road construction and paving in northern Chile.....	Dec. 24	Odin G. Loren, vice consul at Antofagasta.
COLOMBIA		
Decree of Dec. 1, 1931, reorganizing the Ministry of National Education.	Dec. 3	Legation, Bogota.
Nos. 2 and 3 of <i>Antioquia Industrial</i> , official organ of La Industria Nacional Colombiana.	Dec. 7	Carlos C. Hall, vice consul at Medellin.
COSTA RICA		
Report on synopsis of laws of Costa Rica.....	Dec. 4	David J. D. Myers, consul at San Jose.
Banana land survey and timber cruise along the Tusubres River.	Dec. 19	Do.
Copy of <i>Costa Rica Informativa</i> , No. 4, vol. 1, November, 1931.	Dec. 23	Do.
MEXICO		
Résumé of insurance statistics.....	Dec. 19	Robert Frazer, consul general, at Mexico City.
Official list of textbooks to be used in Mexican primary schools in 1932.	1932 Jan. 6	Do.
URUGUAY		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Uruguay for the month of October.	1931 Nov. 23	Legation at Montevideo.
VENEZUELA		
Island of La Orchila.....	Nov. 5	Ben C. Matthews, vice consul at La Guaira.
Highways of Venezuela.....	Nov. 28	Albert H. Cousins, jr., vice consul at Caracas.
Leading articles of imports at La Guaira for the month of October, 1931.	Dec. 15	Ben C. Matthews, vice consul at La Guaira.
Articles of export at La Guaira for the month of November, 1931.	Dec. 16	Do.



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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



MARCH

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL AGUSTÍN P. JUSTO, PRESIDENT OF THE  
REPUBLIC OF ARGENTINA

Inaugurated February 20, 1932, for a term of six years.





## GEN. AGUSTÍN P. JUSTO, PRESIDENT OF ARGENTINA

As a result of the elections held on November 8, 1931, Gen. Agustín P. Justo was inaugurated President of Argentina on February 20, to serve six years. He is known to his countrymen as a gifted statesman, an honored officer, a man of democratic convictions and sturdy uprightness, qualified by knowledge, experience, and patriotism to cope with the difficult governmental problems which that progressive nation, like all others in the Western Hemisphere, faces to-day.

General Justo is 56 years of age, having been born in the city of Concepción del Uruguay, Province of Entre Ríos, on February 26, 1876. He is therefore in the prime of his physical and mental vigor. This was well demonstrated in the short preelection campaign during which he tirelessly traversed all the Argentine Provinces to make known his platform and to preach his republican ideals.

As a child he attended primary school in San Nicolás de los Arroyos, where political vicissitudes had caused his father, former governor of the Province of Corrientes, to settle. At 11 years of age the boy entered the newly organized Military College, graduating in 1892, before he was 16 years of age, as an ensign. He then entered the artillery regiment stationed at Mendoza as its youngest officer.

His penetrating intelligence was revealed in his fondness for mathematics, and his strength of body and character evinced in the arduous duties performed in the mountains for two strenuous years in the open or under improvised shelters in the midst of the Andean solitudes, while he worked with a military topographical commission of the General Staff. This work won him in 1895, before he was 20 years old, the insignia of second lieutenant.

Since at that time there was no War College in Argentina, the young officer, to extend his training, entered the School of Exact Sciences of the University of Buenos Aires, graduating as a civil engineer and thereafter ranking as a military engineer.

In 1897 came promotion to a first lieutenancy and a special commission to the frontier; in 1902, a captaincy and appointment to the professorship of military plans in the Officers' Training School.

In 1904 Captain Justo was made professor of mathematics in the National Military College. Subsequently he became chief of construction at Campo de Mayo, but later returned to his teaching of mathematics in the Military College, adding also courses in telemetrics and optic telegraphy in the School of Marksmanship, of which he was appointed assistant principal in 1908. Meantime he had received the rank of major, and in 1909, as a lieutenant colonel, he had the honor of being a member of the Argentine mission to Chile on the occasion of the centenary of that Republic. A colonelcy in 1913 continued his steady and well-deserved rise in his chosen profession, for during the course of the years Justo had repeatedly manifested a deep devotion to study, fondness for hard work, and outstanding ability.

A new position as assistant principal of the Military College he left to become chief of the brigade artillery in command of the Fourth Military Section, but once more, in 1915, he returned to the college, this time as its principal. He threw himself into the administration of the school with great energy and intelligence, endeavoring to train the new generation of Argentine officers in accordance with the most modern technical and cultural methods. After some years of labor, during which time he transformed the school completely, from the architecture of the building to the course of instruction, from the care of the cadets' physical health to that of their ethical education, he left this post to take another of still greater responsibility, having been called in 1922 by the then President Alvear to the cabinet post of Minister of War.

While holding this portfolio, the Minister's executive ability and his ideas, expressed at every opportunity, made a deep impression in political and social circles. On leaving the ministry at the end of President Alvear's term of office in 1925, General Justo, as he had become, addressed to the latter a famous letter containing his democratic opinions with respect to the army.

Immediately after taking the oath of office before Congress on February 20, General Justo proceeded to the Casa Rosada and assumed the duties of the Presidency.

# THROUGH MATTO GROSSO

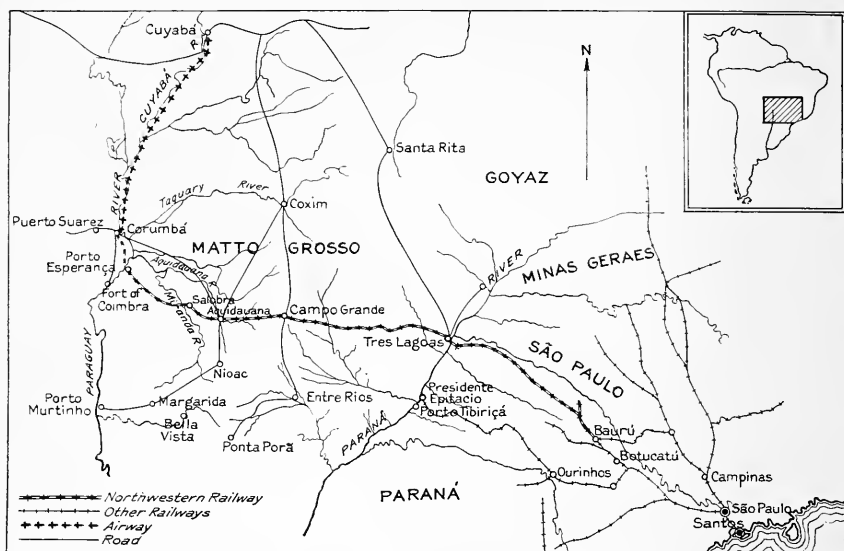
By C. R. CAMERON

*American Consul General, Sao Paulo, Brazil*

THE Brazilian State of Matto Grosso (literally, Great Forest) embraces a vast territory on the Paraguayan and Bolivian borders stretching across the Tropic of Capricorn from 7° to 24° of south latitude and having an area of approximately 637,000 square miles—about eleven times that of all New England. Matto Grosso's population, however, is exceedingly sparse, being only about 350,000, or not much more than one inhabitant for each 2 square miles. Some sections—that around the headwaters of the Xingu River, for example—are little known, are inhabited almost exclusively by Indians, and their immense forests are rumored to conceal the remains of ancient cities, possibly related to the Mayan or Aztecan ruins of the north. The Parecis Mountains divide the State into two parts, the northern or lesser portion lying in the Amazon Valley and depending for communication with the outside world exclusively upon the tributaries of that great river. The southern and better-known portion utilizes for communication the Parana-Paraguayan River system and a single railway, the Northwestern of Brazil, which, connecting with the network of Sao Paulo Railways, stretches westward 500 miles across the State from Jupia on the Parana to Porto Esperança on the Paraguay.

## THROUGH SAO PAULO STATE

It was in the early days of August, 1931, that the writer started from Sao Paulo, with pencil and camera, on a journey of 3,000 miles to Matto Grosso and return. The traveler may utilize the roomy chair cars of the broad-gage (5 feet 3 inches) Sao Paulo-Paulista Railways without change to a junction point (Ityrapina) some 146 miles from Sao Paulo City. This route lies through Limeira, the most famous center of citrous production in the State, and this being orange season, baskets of a dozen of the navel variety found ready sale among the passengers at a milreis—about 6 cents. It was after nightfall when the train of the narrow-gage (1 meter) branch reached Bauru, a city of 15,000 people with electric light and power, and the most important railway town west of Sao Paulo City, for here center branches of the Paulista and Sorocabana Railways, and here also is the eastern terminus of the Northwestern Railway, which stretches away almost 800 miles toward the heart of the continent.



MAP OF REGION TRAVERSED BY AUTHOR IN JOURNEY FROM SÃO PAULO TO MATTO GROSSO, BRAZIL

Near Bauru the railway runs through a wonderfully fertile area, which is rapidly becoming one of the most important coffee-producing centers of São Paulo. The trip, however, is made during the night, since through trains leave Bauru only twice each week, at 10.30 p. m., on Thursdays and Sundays.

Shortly after the passenger awakes the next morning the train reaches the southern bank of the Tiete River, the channel of which it follows in a general way to the western border of the State. Here the route traverses a rank forest with thick undergrowth bound together with creepers, impenetrable unless one cuts his way. This forest is the legitimate haunt of the *onças* (jaguars and pumas) some of which reach the weight of 300 pounds and are not unworthy to be compared with the Indian tiger. However, their number is yearly becoming less, due to the westward march of farmers and lumbermen and the activities of the hunters, who find a ready sale for the beautifully marked pelts. The main line of the Northwestern will shortly be relocated upon a ridge some 50 miles to the south, which is more fertile, higher, and more healthful.

#### ENTERING MATTO GROSSO

Just at nightfall the train crosses the Parana River into Matto Grosso over the great bridge of Jupia, finished in 1926 and consisting of a series of steel trestles on piers, the total length being 3,265 feet. The Parana here is wide and shallow, limestone rocks appearing in midchannel during the period of low water. This is the head of

navigation for river steamers which go down the Parana River from Jupia to the Falls of Guayra or Sete Quedas, about 300 miles. The next city of importance in Matto Grosso touched by the Northwestern is Tres Lagoas, 557 miles from Sao Paulo City, a small city founded by the railway and largely depending thereon for its prosperity. It boasts about 600 houses and has considerable wealth in cattle and plantations of various kinds, the population being largely natives of Sao Paulo with a sprinkling of Portuguese and Italian immigrants. Communication with the interior is by automobile, and the city does a good business fitting out expeditions for the diamond fields of Santa Rita to the north or even furnishing transportation to Cuyaba, the capital of the State, 800 miles away.



Photograph by C. R. Cameron

#### MAIN STREET, BAURÚ

Situated 263 miles from São Paulo, Baurú is the most important railway town in the western part of the State of that name, and the eastern terminus of the Northwestern Railway.

West of the Parana River the landscape changes abruptly and one sees an open rolling country with scattering trees stretching away to the south as far as the eye can reach. This is the beginning of the high-ground cattle-raising area which, with various interruptions, extends westward 400 miles to the flood plain of the Paraguay. However, the run from Tres Lagoas to Campo Grande is made largely at night both ways, so that the principal observation of the traveler at this, the dry season of the year at least, relates to the fires which light the horizons in all directions and clear off the dead grass in order that the fresh grass brought by the first rains may be easily cropped by the cattle. Our engine burned wood exclusively, and the enormous clouds of sparks which were given out by the smokestack would un-

doubtedly produce fires in the dry grass even if such were not intentionally set by the cattlemen. Indeed, the fences and even the cross-ties of the railway are frequently destroyed by these fires, so that the ties are, as a rule, covered with earth by the section gangs in order to guard against this contingency.

#### CAMPO GRANDE

The train reaches Campo Grande in the early morning. This city of 12,000 inhabitants, 818 miles from Sao Paulo City, has telephones, water service, electric light and power. It is situated on rolling ground with wide straight streets lined with stores, the central portion being paved with asphalt concrete. The city has a half dozen moving-picture theaters, while 200 motor trucks and 100 passenger automobiles operate north and south, acting as feeders to the railway. Various rice-hulling plants located in the city serve the rich agricultural area and within a radius of one or two hundred miles are located many great cattle ranges. Here are bred most of the cattle which, after being fattened farther east in the States of Minas Geraes and Sao Paulo, supply the packing plants and slaughterhouses of Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro. To the south, moreover, toward the Paraguayan frontier, are thousands of square miles of natural maté forest producing the famous tea of that name, the Matto Grosso product being largely exported to the Plate either down the Parana River or by truck to Campo Grande, then by rail to Porto Esperança and down the Paraguay. Campo Grande is the emporium of southern Matto Grosso.

#### WESTERN MATTO GROSSO

On the last day of the railway journey the train descends steadily from 1,780 feet above sea level, the elevation of Campo Grande, following the river courses and skirting at intervals detached mountains of the Maracaju range. In this season of midwinter with comparatively little foliage in sight, the most conspicuous trees of the landscape were those known locally as *ipé do campo*. They had not leaved out as yet, but the otherwise bare branches were covered with yellow blossoms. The *ipé do campo* has a thick, corklike bark, as indeed do all trees which survive the frequent fires sweeping these plains, burning the grass and destroying shrubs and trees not protected by thick bark. The sight of these great trees, 60 to 75 feet high with a corresponding spread and presenting a compact mass of brilliant yellow, was most striking. As the train descended toward the valley of the Paraguay the route crossed swamps and low lands and finally stopped at Salobra (just beyond the Miranda River), 964 miles from Sao Paulo City. Owing to the flooding of the Paraguay River Valley this station was the temporary terminus of rail

transportation. It is characteristic of the Paraguay River in Matto Grosso that during the local dry season occurs the great overflow of the valley, whereas in the season of local rains the river is shrunk to a comparatively narrow watercourse. This is due to the time required for the rains of the upper courses to reach this latitude.

#### RIVER VOYAGE

At Salobra the passengers, about 30 in number, boarded the S. S. *Guaporé*, a little side-wheel, wood-burning river steamer, about 50 feet long and of a 3-foot draft. On either side were tied lighters loaded with cargo and the overflow passengers. Owing to the shallowness and crookedness of the river our steamer navigated only



Photograph by C. R. Cameron

#### LAUNCH AND LIGHTERS ON THE MIRANDA RIVER

One of the wood-burning steamers which make the 3-day trip from Salobra down the Miranda and Aquidauana Rivers and up the Paraguay River to Corumbá.

in the daytime, anchoring at nightfall. In the quiet of the night one could appreciate the abundance of life in the river, from which came continuous sounds of the leaping and splashing of fish. The great *dourados*, salmon a yard long and excellent for eating, were the principal disturbers, pursuing their prey relentlessly. The voyage was begun again at dawn. The river is exceedingly crooked, and the little launch, burdened with the lighters, got out of control in making sharp curves and, carried by the current, was continually crashing into banks or trees growing at the water's edge. The decks were soon covered with leaves, moss, ants, and débris, and some of the ship's firewood was knocked overboard. The *jacarés* (Brazilian alligators) began to appear on the banks, quite fearless in this little-navigated river. *Capivaras* (water hogs), the greatest of all the

rodents, attaining a length of 3 feet and weighing 100 pounds, prized for their skins, were numerous on the bank, while *lontras* (otters) swam in the river. The crew of one of our lighters saw a mother *onça* and two cubs playing on the bank. A 12 or 15 foot *sucuri* (anaconda) was seen by the writer, sunning itself on the bushes. Waterfowl became more numerous—snow white cranes, egrets, snipe, kingfishers, cormorants, herons, flamingoes, storks, ducks, and many others. The rosy spoonbills—pure white with tints of rose on their wings—in flocks of a score or more, attracted attention, as did the *tuytuyus*, great white and black storks with black bill and red throat, standing 5 feet high, which stalked with comical majesty along the bank. The launch anchored again at dark, still in the Miranda River.



Photograph by C. R. Cameron

#### THE CORUMBÁ WATER FRONT

The commercial section of the town is located on low ground along the water front, with the residential district and most of the retail stores at a higher elevation.

The next day, when we were on the Aquidauana River, was a repetition of these experiences. Just at nightfall the steamer passed a bend in the river where an enormous number of snowy cranes had settled to roost, literally whitening the trees for hundreds of yards along the bank. During the night the steamer entered the Paraguay River.

#### CORUMBA

At 2 p. m. of the third day of river navigation the Brazilian naval station of Ladario loomed up on a limestone cliff rising abruptly on our left, with several small craft tied up in front. Upon this limestone ridge, which stretches along the river, soon appeared the military barracks and finally the city of Corumba. For discharging, except



at the small customhouse wharf, steamers ordinarily lie offshore; the passengers of the S. S. *Guaporé* reached the landing in small boats, finding there automobiles waiting to transport them to the upper town of hotels and residences. Comercio Street, near the landing, occupies an area hewn out of the limestone well above the level of high water.

Before the completion of the Northwestern Railway to Porto Esperança, Corumba was the commercial center for a vast territory, including almost the whole State of Matto Grosso and adjoining portions of Bolivia. During the rubber boom before the World War it enjoyed a period of great prosperity, imported luxuries directly from



Photograph by C. R. Cameron

#### PRAÇA REPUBLICA, CUYABA

The main plaza of the State capital of Matto Grosso. The group of buildings from right to left includes the cathedral, a grade school, and the State treasury

Europe via the Plate and the Paraguay Rivers, and German beer and French wine flowed in its cafés. At that time Corumba attracted many settlers from the Spanish-speaking countries of the south, and, indeed, the Spanish *gracias* in place of the Portuguese *obrigado* is often used to-day even by the native-born *Corumbáense*. The break in the rubber prices in 1910, in conjunction with the finishing of the Madeira-Mamore Railway in 1912, and the arrival of the Northwestern at Porto Esperança in 1914, brought Corumba's wave of exceptional prosperity to an end. The Madeira-Mamore drained most of the Bolivian rubber toward Manaus on the Amazon River, while the completion of the Northwestern to Porto Esperança, where the railhead remained instead of being carried across the river to Corumba as planned, tended to make Sao Paulo (via the North-

western) and Porto Esperança (via the Paraguay River) the distributing and collecting centers of southern Matto Grosso.

#### AIR TRANSPORTATION

It is surprising to discover that two aviation lines make their terminus in Corumba. One is a Brazilian line operating a hydroplane from Corumba to Cuyaba, the State capital to the north, making a round trip weekly while every two weeks the Lloyd-Boliviano plane from La Paz visits Corumba and the Bolivian port of Puerto Suarez, its official terminus, 16 miles away. The river launches which ply between Corumba and Cuyaba were encountering difficulties due to the frequent shoals occurring in the Cuyaba River, since, as stated, this was the local dry season and the tributaries of the Paraguay were at low water. Indeed, the launches, unable to reach Cuyaba, had stopped some 50 miles below the city. This launch trip frequently takes from 8 to 12 days, whereas the hydroplane makes the trip in less than four hours.

On August 13 the writer was a passenger from Cuyaba in the little 4-seater Junker hydroplane, the start being made at daylight. The route lies over the Paraguay and Cuyaba Rivers and the scenery changes from the vast flooded area near Corumba to the drier plain near Cuyaba, where the river shrinks to a narrow ribbon winding through the woods and meadows. On the Bolivian side enormous lagoons open out, and on one of these a British company has attempted to colonize European immigrants. As the plane turned up the Cuyaba River valley it encountered a treacherous head wind, forming eddies and air pockets in which the plane rocked and plunged, but we reached Cuyaba without incident in 2 hours and 40 minutes of flying time.

#### CUYABA

Cuyaba, the capital of the State of Matto Grosso, is in 15° and 36' south latitude; it was founded by Paulistas in 1792 on the site of gold diggings. In fact, even to-day, after rains, urchins pick up particles of gold in the streets of the city. It is one of the most isolated of all Brazilian State capitals, being 650 miles by automobile—at least a four days' journey—from the railway at Campo Grande, the alternative means of access being from Corumba via launch (average, one week) or hydroplane. To the north lie the Parecis Mountains and beyond them the interminable jungles of the Amazon, while to the south, 50 miles away, begin the great swamps which, with numerous interruptions, stretch eastward many miles from the Paraguay River and to the southward below Porto Esperança. The city has numerous handsome buildings and the central portion is paved with basalt. It has about 15,000 inhabitants, electric light and power, water and sewer systems.



Photograph by C. R. Cameron

#### GORGE OF THE COXIPO DE ORO RIVER

A view in the Cuyabá table-land below the Bridal Veil Falls, near Burity.



Photograph by C. R. Cameron

#### URUCUM MOUNTAIN

This mountain, about 15 miles south of Corumbá, is said to be one of the richest deposits of manganese ore in the world.

## IPECAC

Cuyaba is the world's great collecting market and source of supply for ipecac, known locally as *ipecacuanha* or *poaya*. The best grade of ipecac, the black, grows on the slopes of the Parecis Mountains to the northwest of Cuyaba between the headwaters of the Guapore and Paraguay Rivers. It is a shrub a foot or two in height, found in spongy, shaded ground, from which it is removed by pulling after the soil has been loosened with a sort of trowel. The root, which is corrugated like that of the sweet flag, is the valuable portion. The exporting firms in Cuyaba advance funds to foremen, who in turn organize gangs for gathering the ipecac, the harvest taking place during the dry season from August to December. It is a troublesome product to handle, as the price varies greatly, the market being now disorganized owing to the crisis.

## CUYABA TABLE-LAND

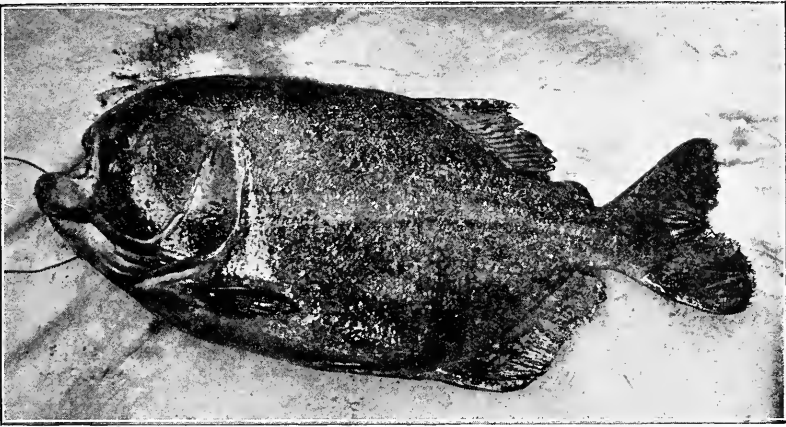
The country around Cuyaba is largely composed of decomposed gold-bearing quartz, which was washed for nuggets by the first settlers 200 years ago. Lacking mechanical means for bringing water from the river, they constructed great reservoirs (*poços*) which filled in the rainy season. Huge heaps of gravel and deep excavations still bear testimony to the mining activities of that period. Over the ridge the writer traveled by automobile to the old *fazenda* of Burity, 37 miles northwest of Cuyaba. Beyond the ridge the road leads across the low rolling table-land (*chapadão*) covered with scrub and a few trees, some showing brilliant blooms. This table-land, a geological deposit of considerable depth and probably formed in various geological epochs stretching from the Devonian to the Cretaceous Age, has been washed away or eroded to form the Paraguay River Basin, but here on the *chapadão* the erosion has been retarded. About halfway to Burity the road passes through a range of red arenitic hills weathered into fantastic shapes, one section of the road being blasted out of the mountain side in a narrow defile, known as *Porto do Inferno* (Hell Gate). The table-land is traversed by numerous deep watercourses and the road runs quite close to two or three picturesque waterfalls. These watercourses are provided with bridges, which in some cases consist only of a log split in two, the two halves, placed at suitable intervals with the flat surface upward, furnishing the track for the wheels of the automobile.

## CUYABA TO PORTO ESPERANÇA

The return trip from Cuyaba to Corumba was also made by hydroplane, which flew more than a mile up to avoid a head wind. Two interesting automobile trips can be made from Corumba, one just

across the border to the Bolivian governmental center called Puerto Suarez, with which Corumba maintains a considerable trade. Many supplies for this section of Bolivia, such as cloth from Sao Paulo and flour from the Plate, are purchased in Corumba.

Another trip is to the Urucum *fazenda* at the base of a mountain of manganese of excellent quality. This is a delightfully fruitful plantation with abundance of running water, truck gardens, and groves of oranges, mangos, and other fruits in profusion. The *fazenda* is a favorite resort for picnic parties from Corumba. It is along the side of Urucum Mountain and related hills stretching away to the southwest that the Northwestern Railway will some day be extended to Corumba, thus fulfilling the dream and ambition of the Corumbaenses.



A PIRANHA

These comparatively small fish are more feared than any other form of river life.

Corumba, like Cuyaba, is noted for its excellent schools and up-to-date newspapers.

The writer was fortunate enough to make the trip from Corumba to Porto Esperança by day and to catch the very first train of the Northwestern which reached that port after an interruption of several months due to high water. The main channel of the Paraguay River is from 200 to 300 yards wide, inundated lands stretching far beyond. During the time of flood the swamps and lagoons produce extensive surface growths consisting largely of water hyacinths, which with the fall of the water float out into the main channel in great blocks or islands. These *camelotes*, as they are known, were frequently encountered in the river and waterfowl were again in evidence. On the banks the yellow *cambara* and the rose-colored *piuva*, the latter one of the most resistant woods of Brazil, were bursting into bloom,

while the lagoons and side channels glimpsed with the progress of the launch sometimes revealed great flocks of cranes, ducks and cormorants, and other bird life.

#### PIRANHAS

The river fish known as *piranhas* can easily be captured by hook and line. This little fish is somewhat square in appearance, the adult weighing about 2 pounds, the lancetlike teeth projecting from the jaws toward the front so that, hurling itself rapidly against its prey, the teeth enter the flesh. Attacking in schools of 100 or more, *piranhas* are exceedingly dangerous and more feared than alligators or any other form of river life. However, they are usually excited to attack only by blood, although even a red patch on the skin may draw them. Cows swimming the river sometimes lose their udders or are even killed by *piranhas*, and not long ago an Indian crossing the river on horseback with his naked feet in the stirrups lost most of his great toe through an attack of these fish.

#### THE GREAT MARSHES

Many thousands of square miles of the Paraguay River Valley are subject to overflow and, indeed, remain more or less marshy throughout the year. These marshes are alluvial plains in the making—as were once some of the States of the Mississippi Valley—and in this tropical climate they teem with life of various kinds, including alligators, lizards, turtles, water snakes, anacondas sometimes being 40 feet in length; waterfowl of a thousand varieties; fish, which in the dry season literally crowd the diminished watercourses and upon which innumerable waterfowl and beasts of prey gorge themselves with a minimum of effort; and a large number of land and water mammals such as *onças*, wild cats, deer, tapirs, otters, *capivaras*, *pacas*, armadillos, anteaters, and hundreds of others valued for their meat or skins. Alligators (*jacarés*) are so numerous that, according to the residents, they sometimes pile themselves one on top of the other on favorite sunning beaches. However, the writer's visit being during the season of high water with comparatively few 'gators in sight, this phenomenon was not personally observed. Unfortunately, the skin of these alligators can not be converted into leather, inasmuch as it has plates even on the abdomen, which is the part of the American alligator skin which is utilized. *Capivara* skins are highly valued for making gloves.

But the product of the marshes of most value commercially is cattle. A *fazenda* in the marshes, if provided with enough high ground to serve as refuge during the floods, produces cattle whose meat is especially savory, due to continual access to fresh grass. Moreover, the ox warble, one of the most pernicious insect enemies



(Left)

URUCUM ROAD,  
NEAR CORUMBA

Showing one of the remarkable nests of twigs built by the *japuhya*, a bird the size of an oriole. (Photograph by C. R. Cameron.)

(Right)

## A CARNAUBA PALM

Carnauba wax, which has numerous commercial uses, is obtained from the coating of the palm leaves, which is beaten off and boiled. During 1929, Brazil, which has a practical monopoly of this product, exported 6,433 tons, valued at nearly \$3,000,000. (Photograph by courtesy of Bureau of Plant Industry, U. S. Department of Agriculture.)



of cattle on the Matto Grosso ranges along the railway, is unable to exist in the marshes, since it must pass part of its life cycle in the ground.

## PORTO ESPERANÇA

At the time of the writer's visit to Porto Esperança, which is situated on low ground, the town was largely under water. However, the railway tracks are built on causeways, and the little electric plant of the railway company, together with the houses of the railway employees, was on filled land above the flood level. The building most conspicuous to the traveler arriving by river launch is the combined customhouse and terminal station of the railway. Here also the Lloyd Brasileiro has a pair of lighters anchored near the water front to facilitate the loading and unloading of cargo. Both the Lloyd Brasileiro and the Argentine company of Mihanovich operate steamers down the Paraguay from Corumba (head of 6-foot navigation) to Montevideo and Buenos Aires, making stops at Porto Esperança. Matto Grosso imports via the Paraguay consist largely of flour, gasoline, kerosene, and salt for jerked beef (*xarque*). The exports via the Plate which bulk the largest are coffee and maté from Porto Esperança; and from Corumba and the upper river, hides, skins, rubber, ipecac, and forest products in wide variety.

## RETURN TO SAO PAULO

Northwestern trains arrive at Porto Esperança after dark and leave before dawn. The train for Bauru left the station for Porto Esperança at 5 o'clock; the first 24 miles lay across the flood plain, the roadbed having just been submerged and recently repaired. Our

progress was slow until we reached high ground at Carandazal, where the train took on a heavier and stronger locomotive. Carandazal gets its name from *Caranda*, the southern name of the carnauba wax palm. This palm, it will be recalled, bears upon its leaves thin flakes of wax, the harvesting of which consists of beating off these flakes in a closed room. On account of its fine grain and hardness, carnauba wax constitutes a valuable article of commerce; it is the material upon which phonograph records are first recorded.

Beyond Carandazal the railway soon skirts a limestone formation, similar to that of Corumba and other hills of this section—protuberances left by the age-long erosion which scooped out the valley. This limestone will furnish the material for the elevation of the Northwestern Railway across the flood plain, an improvement which is now under way, and which, when completed, will prevent the interruption of traffic by flood. At Salobra a river launch, similar to our old friend the *Guaporé*, was just beginning its river journey, and I wondered whether any of its passengers would experience the intense thrills of pleasure which fell to my lot during the trip through this tropic wonderland.

From Bauru, the return was made over the Sorocabana Railway, the route lying over the picturesque Botucatu Mountains, from the height of which one sees cultivated fields, groves, and coffee plantations stretching away as far as the eye can reach. Descending the mountains, the train enters one of the most fruitful sections of agricultural Sao Paulo, as evidenced by the wide variety of its products and the handsome modern farm and plantation houses which thickly dot the countryside.

Arriving in Sao Paulo city, the writer learned that more than half of the several hundred photographic exposures made during the trip had been ruined by a puncture of the camera bellows developed the second day out. Fortunately, the puncture was temperamental and spared many photographs.

But pictures are not necessary to recall Matto Grosso, and the returning traveler will often find his thoughts reverting to that wide-flung member of the Brazilian federation and the gentle hospitality of its people; Cuyaba upon its hills of quartz and gold; the boundless ranges of Campo Grande; and the white cliffs of Corumba. There is something not easily forgotten in the aspect of the latter, set upon its limestone escarpment a hundred feet above the river and the teeming, mysterious marshes, gazing away toward Bolivia across the bend of the Paraguay, now expanded to the dimensions of a sea. As the sun sinks one sees an endless succession of dark islands and shimmering lagoons where frontiers cross prairies in the making, and where, in the very center of the South American Continent, nature affords one of its most impressive manifestations of creative life.



# THE THIRD PAN AMERICAN POSTAL CONGRESS

By IRVING L. GLOVER

*Second Assistant Postmaster General of the United States*

THE Third Pan American Postal Congress convened in Madrid on October 10 and adjourned on November 10, 1931. The sessions were held in the Hall of the Senate, from the walls of which many beautiful paintings depicting important events in the long and colorful history of Spain looked down upon the delegates.

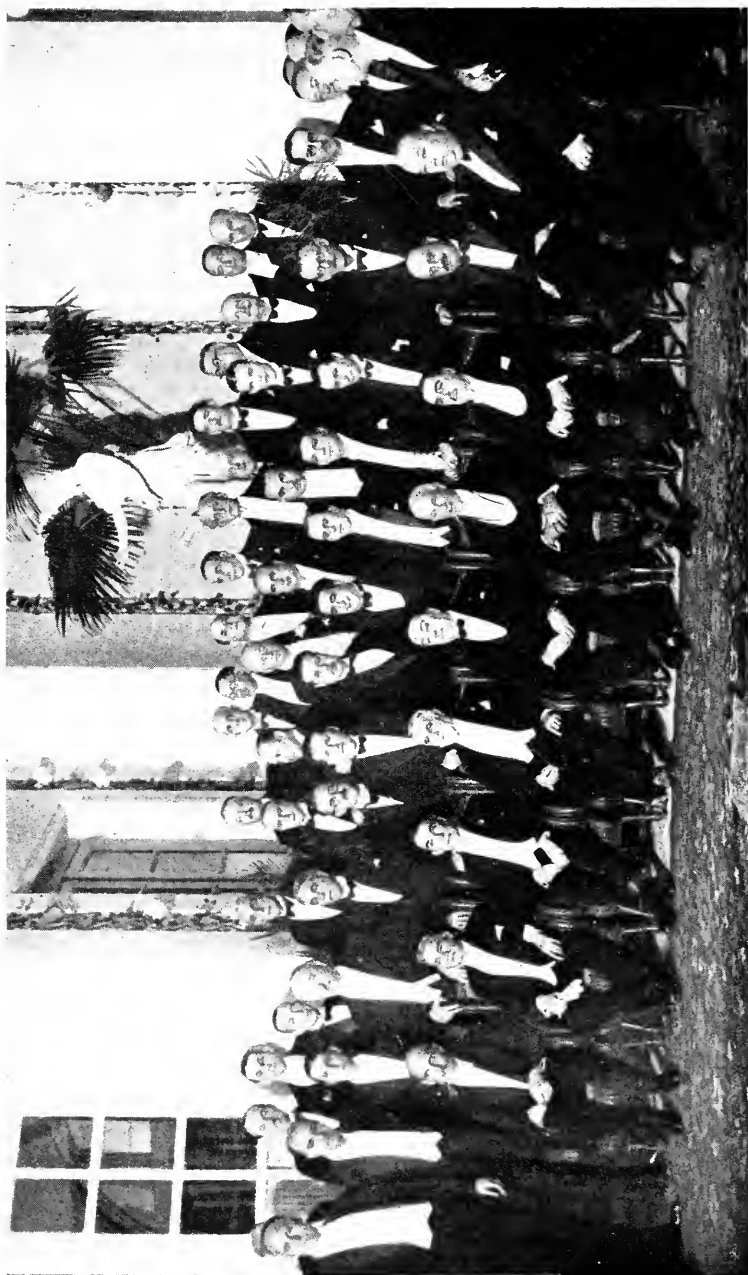
The congress was opened by the President of the Spanish Republic, or rather of the Constituent Assembly, which was holding day and night sessions a short distance away in the Chamber of Deputies Building, drawing up a constitution for the new Republic; 23 countries were represented, 22 from the Western Hemisphere, including Canada which was admitted to the union, and Spain.

The congress adopted a principal convention dealing with the exchange of correspondence, prints of all kinds, commercial papers and samples; and two agreements, one providing for the exchange of parcel post and the other for a money-order system between the contracting countries. The delegates from the United States signed the convention and both agreements.

One of the basic principles of the union is free transit of regular mails through intermediary countries. This principle had been recognized by the United States in former congresses but the language which expressed it in the convention was so ambiguous as to give rise to disputes and differences of opinion with regard to the extent of its application. This provision was clarified and unanimous agreement was reached that freedom of transit applies to all of the postal services maintained by any signatory country through its territory or on board ships of its registry. It does not apply to air services maintained by one or more administrations which, however, must be offered to all countries on the same basis.

The domestic rates of postage of each country will apply to mail sent to any of the countries, except that the United States reserves the right to increase its rates to Pan America and Spain by not more than 50 per cent until such time as it can obtain a corresponding increase in its domestic rates.

The contracting countries obligate themselves to act and vote as a unit in Congresses of the Universal Postal Union. The United



Courtesy of Warren L. Glover

DELEGATES TO THE THIRD PAN AMERICAN POSTAL CONGRESS, MADRID, SPAIN, OCTOBER 10—NOVEMBER 10, 1931

States, however, excepted to this provision and reserved complete liberty of action in the Universal Postal Union Congresses. This was because the majority of Pan American countries insist on extending the principle of free transit to all countries of the Universal Postal Union. While the United States adheres to the principle in its relations with the Pan American countries, it regards it as entirely impracticable and inequitable if extended to include all countries.

The regulations adopted regarding the air mail services recognize the necessity for cooperation among all the countries and provide for wide dissemination of information regarding the lines maintained as well as for their utilization by all countries on uniform terms. Complete control is, however, left in the hands of the country which operates the lines.

The monetary unit is changed from the dollar to the gold franc in the interest of uniformity with the Universal Postal Union Convention which uses that standard of value.

In the exchange of parcel post an additional fee of 10 cents per parcel may be charged for customs formalities in the country of destination. A maximum storage charge for parcels of \$1 was agreed upon. The maximum indemnity for ordinary parcels weighing over 11 pounds was reduced from \$10 to \$8, and provision was made requiring the sender to indicate on the dispatch note the disposal to be made of a parcel which can not be delivered as originally addressed.

There were no important changes in the money-order agreement.

Finally, it was decided to change the name of the union to "Postal Union of the Americas and Spain," thus according recognition in its title to all of its members.

The convention becomes effective on March 1, 1932, and remains in force until superseded by the convention to be adopted by the next congress which meets at Habana in 1936.

The hospitality of the Spanish people is proverbial and it was never better exemplified than in the entertainment of the Third Pan American Postal Congress. The delegates were entertained, if not by royalty, at least in royal manner, and were taken to the many beautiful and historic spots near Madrid as well as to those in the city. Finally, they went on a 9-day trip through southern Spain, which was replete with exciting and vivid incidents and was an experience long to be remembered.

# "LANCES AND GUITARS"

An old man clad in white, a member of the Unitarian Party, stands holding his guitar in the center of a group. Seated behind him is a Federalist, dressed in a white shirt, red trousers, and a dark chiripa. The Unitarian, clad in white, has entered a *pulpero* store with a bar of Federalist standing by. The members of the latter party instead of firing combat have challenged them to a contest on the guitar, *pagada de contrapunto*. The Federalists, dressed in red, many of them carrying lances, wait about the room for the contest to begin. Two men in the group also hold guitars, one man wears a *facón* and a *talero*, or whip, another a long sword, while still another carries a silver-handled *areador*, or whip. Their headgear varies: Red Federalist caps, a gray top hat, two broad-brimmed hats, a kepi, and a tall yellow hat. They wear neckerchiefs of salmon color, yellow, red, or pink, white drawers, and *chiripás* of red or dark colors. On the gray walls of the store hangs a green branch, sign of a wine shop, and the *pulpero* looks out anxiously through the red bars above his counter at the group before him. Arranged on shelves behind him are green and yellow bottles. (Description in catalogue of the exhibition.)



## PAINTINGS OF GAUCHO LIFE IN ARGENTINA

THE Hispanic Society of America opened to view from February 6 until April 15 of this year at its noted Museum in New York City an exhibition of paintings of Gaucho life in the Province of Entre Rios, Argentina, 1850-1870. These 25 pictures, brilliant in technique and, in general, glowing in color, are the result of five years' work by the Argentine artist Cesáreo Bernaldo de Quirós. "And, after his own fashion and in his own chosen way, has Cesáreo Bernaldo de Quirós given his native *milieu*, his own local and regional types, the accent and semblance of a genuine artistic creation. His contribution to the art of his time is the *Época del Gaucho*," says Dr. Christian Brinton in an illuminating monograph.<sup>1</sup>

But, it may be asked, who is the Gaucho and why should he be thus commemorated? In the introduction to another publication of the Hispanic Society, in which the paintings in the exhibition are reproduced with descriptive notes, is found the following summary of the part of the Gaucho in Argentine history and literature:

The Gaucho is a descendant of the early Spanish colonizers, who in the course of two centuries came to lead a semi-nomadic life on the Argentine pampas. The chief activity of the Gauchos was that of herdsman until the war of liberation from Spain, when they were gathered into wandering bands of soldiers under local leaders (*caudillos*). The guerrilla warfare which they waged was then their main occupation and continued to be so while the Federalist party, having as its aim a loose association of provinces, was struggling against the Unitarian party, which sought a strongly centralized government at Buenos Aires. There had risen to the governorship of the province of Entre Ríos General Justo José de Urquiza. In 1851, although himself a Federalist, he began active measures to establish a constitutional government and to depose General Juan Manuel de Rosas, who had set up a dictatorship at Buenos Aires. Urquiza, with an army composed largely of Gauchos from his own province, defeated Rosas at the battle of Caseros on February 3rd, 1852. The victorious general was president of the Argentine Confederation from 1853 to 1860, but Buenos Aires was still a centre of Unitarian disaffection. The army of Buenos Aires under Bartolomé Mitre prevailed against Urquiza at the battle of Pavón in 1861, with the result that Mitre was elected president. The province of Entre Ríos, for a short time under separate government, became the centre of the opposition and still the scene of conflicts between Federalists and Unitarian adherents. There was also occupation for the militia of that province in the war against Paraguay, but with the assassination of General Urquiza in 1870, they lost their greatest leader.

<sup>1</sup> "Cesáreo Bernaldo de Quirós," by Christian Brinton. An exhibition of paintings of Gaucho life in the Province of Entre Rios, Argentina, 1850-1870, at the Hispanic Society of America. New York, 1932. Hispanic Notes and Monographs: Essays, studies and brief biographies issued by the Hispanic Society of America.

As soon as the Gaucho was an important military and political factor, he also became a focus for literary productions, the bulk of which, at this time, had their genesis in political affairs. The most famous writers were also men of action: Mitre and Sarmiento, whose *Vida de Facundo Quiroga* was the biography of a Gaucho chief, were in turn exiles and presidents; Ascásubi and Estanislao del Campo were both pamphleteers and poets. Early in the nineteenth century the forms of the dance-songs (*cielitos, gatos, et cetera*) and ballads of the Gaucho bards were adapted to the uses of political propaganda by such poets as Bartolomé Hidalgo and Juan Godoy, who had lived among the Gauchos and were familiar with their habits and dialect. With the growing sense of nationality there came a widespread interest in this unique type of native citizen. In 1837 Esteban Echeverría produced a long narrative poem, *La cautiva*, dealing with an Indian raid on the pampas; Estanislao del Campo in *Fausto* interpreted the story of the opera in Gaucho terms. By 1872 the poem of the Gaucho assumed epic proportions in the *Santos Vega* of Hilario Ascásubi, and, above all, in the *Martín Fierro*<sup>2</sup> of José Hernández, an account of the adventures of a wandering minstrel and outlaw. *Gauchosco* subjects were treated in a romantic fashion by such poets as Mitre, Ricardo Gutiérrez and Rafael Obligado. The theme spread to the novel and the drama among a later generation of men who no longer viewed the Gaucho scene except from a distance and largely through the eyes of their literary predecessors. Eduardo Gutiérrez was a precursor of the novelists in his series of journalistic stories; Martiniano Leguizamón produced the first important play, *Calandria*,<sup>3</sup> as well as several novels, such as *Montaraz*; the tradition was carried on in the novels of Roberto Payró, Ricardo Güiraldes, and certain Uruguayan writers.

It seems small wonder that an Argentine painter should have found inspiration in those stirring days and figures, that the subject and the artist should be inseparable. However, it was by a long way around that de Quirós finally came to be the interpreter of Gaucho life.

Born May 29, 1881, in Gualaguay, a city of 40,000 inhabitants on the river of the same name in the Province of Entre Ríos, he was one of the eight children of Señor don Julio Bernaldo de Quirós, a gentleman of Spanish birth prominent in public affairs, and his wife Doña Carlota Ferreyra de Quirós. The town was almost lost in the wide-stretching undulating pampa which surrounded it. Here the young Bernaldo grew up, devoted, like his brothers, to all manner of sports. He also showed from the age of six or seven a great fondness for drawing, but his leanings toward art were not encouraged by his father, who placed him, at the age of 15, with a large business firm in Buenos Aires.

In the capital he happened to become acquainted with Nicolás Cotanda, who enjoyed a considerable reputation as a painter of historical subjects. When Cotanda, impressed with the boy's artistic

<sup>2</sup> See A Fragment from "Martín Fierro (El Gaucho)", by José Hernández. Translated by Joseph Auslander, Corresponding Member, The Hispanic Society of America. Hispanic Notes and Monographs: Essays, Studies and Brief Biographies issued by The Hispanic Society of America. New York, 1932.

<sup>3</sup> See "Calandria, a Drama of Gaucho Life," by Martiniano Leguizamón. Translated from the Spanish. Hispanic Notes and Monographs: Essays, Studies and Brief Biographies issued by The Hispanic Society of America. New York, 1932.



Courtesy of The Hispanic Society of America

#### "THE COUPLE AND THE WATERMELON VENDER"

A man in white shirt and cotton drawers, yellow waistcoat, dark blue *chiripá*, and blue kerchief flowered in red and yellow, walks with his girl (*china*) who wears a red dress and orange head covering. The *chiripá* is a piece of cloth worn over the white drawers, draped about the hips, pulled up between the legs and secured by a sash. The man carries a guitar decorated with red ribbons, and the girl holds a red and yellow fan. A black and white dog walks before the couple, and the man leads a chestnut horse with silver trappings and a brown saddle. The horse's mane is clipped in the fashion introduced by the Moors into Spain. A watermelon seller, dressed in purple and brown garments, is seated in the shadows of an arcade surrounded by his wares. The blue sky is veiled with yellow and mauve clouds. In the distance a village *fiesta* takes place, green trees and yellow buildings forming a background for riders and villagers in festive mood. (Description in catalogue of the exhibition.)



## THE RED LANCER

Clad in white drawers, scarlet *chiripá*, and poncho trimmed with narrow green bands, the Federalist lancer holds in his hands a long lance with a red pennon. He has dark bushy hair, black eyes, and bronze complexion. His tall figure is outlined against a greenish-yellow sky with mauve clouds. The landscape is painted in vivid tones of red, green, and yellow. (Description in catalogue of the exhibition.)

Courtesy of The Hispanic Society of America

ambition, offered to take him as a pupil, the father issued an ultimatum: "Either a painter or a cobbler."

But de Quirós senior need have had no doubts, for his son, after two years with Cotanda, was graduated in three years instead of the usual six from the Academy of Fine Arts, Buenos Aires (where he is now a professor). A further testimony to his talent and application was the award to him of the Prix de Rome, which meant four years of study and travel in Europe. He stayed six, learning to know the great galleries and painting, chiefly by himself. Then he returned home to exhibit in Buenos Aires, where his work was warmly received, as it had been in Europe. Once more in the Old World, he became especially interested in the work of Goya, Delacroix, and Turner. At length, as the result of a chance meeting, he went to Sardinia,





Courtesy of The Hispanic Society of America

"LET US GO ON!"

An old gray-bearded Gauchito in white shirt and drawers, black and brown *chiripá*, yellow and red poncho and tall yellow hat (*panza de burro*) holds a guitar in one hand and rests the other on his weary, chestnut horse (*manicarrón*). The stock of his gun appears in front of the saddle. Beside him is an old woman in pink blouse, green ribbons, yellow headkerchief, and blue and purple plaid skirt. She carries a fighting cock and a blue-green shawl. On the ground is a brown parrot cage. Three brown and white dogs surround them. Gray clouds obscure the blue sky except for pinkish-yellow streaks along the horizon, against which a group of trees lift their brown foliage. The painting represents the Gauchito moving on before the influx of foreigners. (Description in catalogue of the exhibition.)

where, says Doctor Brinton, of whose account these paragraphs are a brief summary, "Señor de Quirós worked with a feverish energy on a series of large canvases depicting the popular life of the Sardinian peasantry."

These were intended for the biennial exhibition at Venice, where de Quirós had been invited to fill a whole room. But when the time came for sending the paintings, he felt that his work "did not come up to his own definite æsthetic standard." Doctor Brinton continues:

. . . The most important canvas of all, which he called *Justicia Sarda*, was, he felt, little more than a pious homage to the immortal painter of *Las Lanzas*. There were, amongst the lot, other echoes of tradition and the museums, other obvious tributes to certain great figures of the past. At the artist's own request

the exhibition was amicably canceled, the committee, though frankly disappointed, having been quick to understand and to honor the courageous artistic probity of the young Argentine.

As is usually the case, something was salvaged from the seeming wreck—something that became the actual corner stone of the artist's future career. It was simply that Bernaldo de Quirós was by now completely, finally, surfeited with the mainly academic and generally traditional character of most European painting of the day. He longed especially for fresher, more virile themes. . . . The upshot of all this was the avowed determination on the part of Señor de Quirós to forswear Europe and see if he could not find some sort of inspiring and unspoiled artistic *milieu* in the country of his birth.

A cordial reception was given to the 20 or more diversified canvases which he exhibited at the International Exposition held in Buenos Aires in 1910, and a home and studio were awarded him in Buenos Aires. His exhibitions in Argentina and other South American countries continued to be successful, but he tired of city life and left the capital for his native province in search of fresh material. Here he was invited to stay with the proprietor of a vast estancia.

It was at "El Palmar" with its atmosphere of old-world feudalism, its vast herds of cattle and sheep, its veritable army of Gauchos, rancheros, and family retainers that Señor de Quirós acquired his first glimpse of that particular historical background which he was shortly to make so convincingly, so eloquently, his own. In and about the larger, more accessible centers of the province the Gaucho was already fast disappearing. Here, too, was he being gradually pushed into the wilderness by the modern-style cattleman and agriculturalist. Yet, fortunately, enough of the old-time spirit and color of *pampa* life survived to afford the artist his required setting. . . .

He learned to know the men whom he wanted to paint by living and working with them, for at his request his host appointed him a sort of estate manager. Long months of riding the range and coping with a thousand problems side by side with the Gauchos gave him a penetrating insight into their very being and enabled him to reconstruct an historic period.

In the course of his keen analysis of the paintings which were the product of this association and which form the present exhibit, Doctor Brinton says:

Romanticism was the predestined medium through which de Quirós was to conjure up his pictorial epic, and for this task he was eminently qualified through training, temperament, and inheritance. . . .

. . . The twin elements upon which the major appeal of these canvases is largely based are color and characterization. Both these notes has Señor de Quirós more than once employed with assured and opulent mastery. The dominant color is obviously red. This red, which like a kind of chromatic leitmotif runs through various compositions, is neither a temperamental whim nor an accident. Virtually without exception the different types of Gaucho soldiery here depicted are Federalists, and red was the color prescribed by General Rosas for the Federal adherents. . . .

As we pass from color to characterization, which is the other mainstay of romanticism in its present application, we shall discover that these *Scenes of Gaucho Life in Entre Rios* offer equally rich and suggestive material for study and comparison. The same method of intensifying reality, of treating the theme at hand in a vein of super-realism, which of course amounts to sheer romanticism, is followed after much the same fashion. It would be difficult to point to a more frankly picturesque, a more virile and veracious gallery of native portraiture than that which here confronts one. . . .

By way of general estimate, it will readily be conceded that the art of Cesáreo Bernaldo de Quirós assumes its rightful place in the virile, brilliant pageant of contemporary Hispanic painting. His production follows in appropriate sequence the dazzling pictorial pantheism of Joaquín Sorolla y Bastida, the proud, sober traditionalism of Ignacio Zuloaga y Zanora<sup>4</sup>, the sensuous, festal vision of Hermenegildo Anglada Camarasa. And yet, this art is not Mediterranean in spirit as is that of Sorolla, not Iberian as that of Zuloaga, not Valencian as that of Anglada. In form only, not in content, is it European. It has, in truth, achieved for itself a truly national æsthetic physiognomy. It is Argentinian, and, specifically, pampean—of the *pampa*.

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<sup>4</sup> *Sic.*—Editor.



# THE COAT OF ARMS OF LIMA<sup>1</sup>

By E. HARTH-TERRÉ

THE City of the Kings, which Pope Paul III distinguished with the title of "City" on May 17, 1541, at the request of Emperor Charles the Fifth, was founded by the bold Francisco Pizarro, Marqués de los Atabillos, on January 18, 1535.

Although there is no doubt concerning this date, for it is so set down in the act signed by Pizarro and the 11 hidalgos who accompanied him on this solemn occasion, all the chroniclers of the time are agreed that the city received its name because it was established on Epiphany, the 6th of January, the day when the Three Wise Men are supposed to have visited the Christ Child; and the chronicler Garcilaso de la Vega says that they named it thus because they founded it on that day. In the royal decree of December 7, 1537, by which Charles the Fifth granted the city a coat of arms, no reference is made to the reason why the design included three kings' crowns with a star on a blue ground, but in the description of the coat of arms granted to the University of San Marcos by a decree of May 12, 1551, it is stated that the bearings shall include the crowns and star of the Three Wise Men "which are the arms of this city."<sup>2</sup> Therefore there is no doubt that the city of Lima was called the City of the Kings because it was founded near the feast of Epiphany, and that the crowns on its shield are those of the "Three Kings of Orient." These crowns are of eight points, open in the ancient style.

In December, 1537, Charles, by the grace of God Emperor of the Romans and King of Germany; Juana, his mother, and Charles, Queen and King of Castile, Leon, Aragon, etc., etc., by royal decree, a copy of which is preserved in the Archives of the Indies at Seville, appointed the following coat of arms for the City of the Kings: "A shield with a blue ground bearing three royal golden crowns arranged in a triangle and above them a golden star, three of whose points touch the three crowns, and around the shield on a red ground in golden letters "Hoc signum vere regum est";<sup>3</sup> and for a device, two black eagles wearing royal crowns, the one looking at the other,

<sup>1</sup> Translated and condensed from *El Escudo de Armas de la Ciudad de los Reyes*, by E. Harth-Terré, Lima, 1928.

<sup>2</sup> Constitución XIV (Número 116 antiguo, Título 9º, de las Constituciones y Ordenanzas Antiguas, Añadidas y Modernas de la Real Universidad y estudio general de San Marcos de la ciudad de los Reyes del Perú (Impreso en la misma ciudad de Los Reyes, en la Imprenta Real, por Félix de Soldana y Flores en este año de 1735).

<sup>3</sup> "This is verily the sign of the kings."

and between their heads the letters I and K,<sup>4</sup> the initials of our given names, and above these letters a gold star as here drawn and painted," etc.

It should not be forgotten that soon after the death of Cardinal Francisco Jiménez de Cisneros, Charles the Fifth in great pomp entered Valladolid, where the Cortes of Castile had been convoked in assembly. Although on every occasion he took the title of King, he had not yet been recognized as such by the Spaniards because they believed that the right to the crown belonged solely to Queen Juana. However, the presence of Charles and the skill of his ministers decided the assembly to recognize him as such in 1518, notwithstanding respect for ancient formulas; it was determined that he should reign jointly with his mother Juana and that his name should be placed on all acts and documents after that of the queen.

The decree of 1537 also says that the City of the Kings is given permission to place this coat of arms on its flag, seals, shields, and pennants, and any other places where it may so desire, in the form and manner in which such coats of arms are borne "in these cities of our Kingdom of Castile



THE COAT OF ARMS OF LIMA

to which we have given arms and device." Coats of arms of the Spanish cities of this time are surmounted by the royal crown, and thus we find their armorial bearings accompanying the royal escutcheon on all public edifices, where they were placed as a mark of proud dignity. Later, by royal decree of September 15, 1802, the City of the Kings was granted the same treatment, honors and distinctions which the City of Mexico had enjoyed since 1728. By virtue of this decree, Lima was given the privilege of enjoying the title of "muy noble, insigne y muy leal" (very noble, illustrious, and very loyal) with the privileges of grandee, as chief city of New Spain.

On the ancient shields of the Kings of Spain, before the time of Ferdinand and Isabella, there was seen a device of the pillars of

<sup>4</sup> I for the Latin form of Juana and K presumably for the German form of Charles.—Editor.



From a drawing by E. Harth-Terré

#### THE CATHEDRAL TOWERS, LIMA

The Cathedral of Lima, now a basilica by Papal authorization, was constructed at the end of the eighteenth century on the foundations of similar earlier edifices which had been destroyed by earthquakes. The architect, Matías Maestro, chose a neo-classic style, simple and chaste, in reaction against the pompous and exuberant Churrigueresque in vogue at that period, of which the doorway of the Church of San Agustín in Lima is an example. The cathedral is situated on the Plaza de Armas next to the Palace of Pizarro, later occupied by the viceroys and now by the President of the Republic. The remains of Pizarro are entombed in the cathedral, which contains numerous artistic treasures, including beautifully carved choir stalls.



From a drawing by E. Harth-Terré

#### THE CHURCH OF SAN FRANCISCO, LIMA

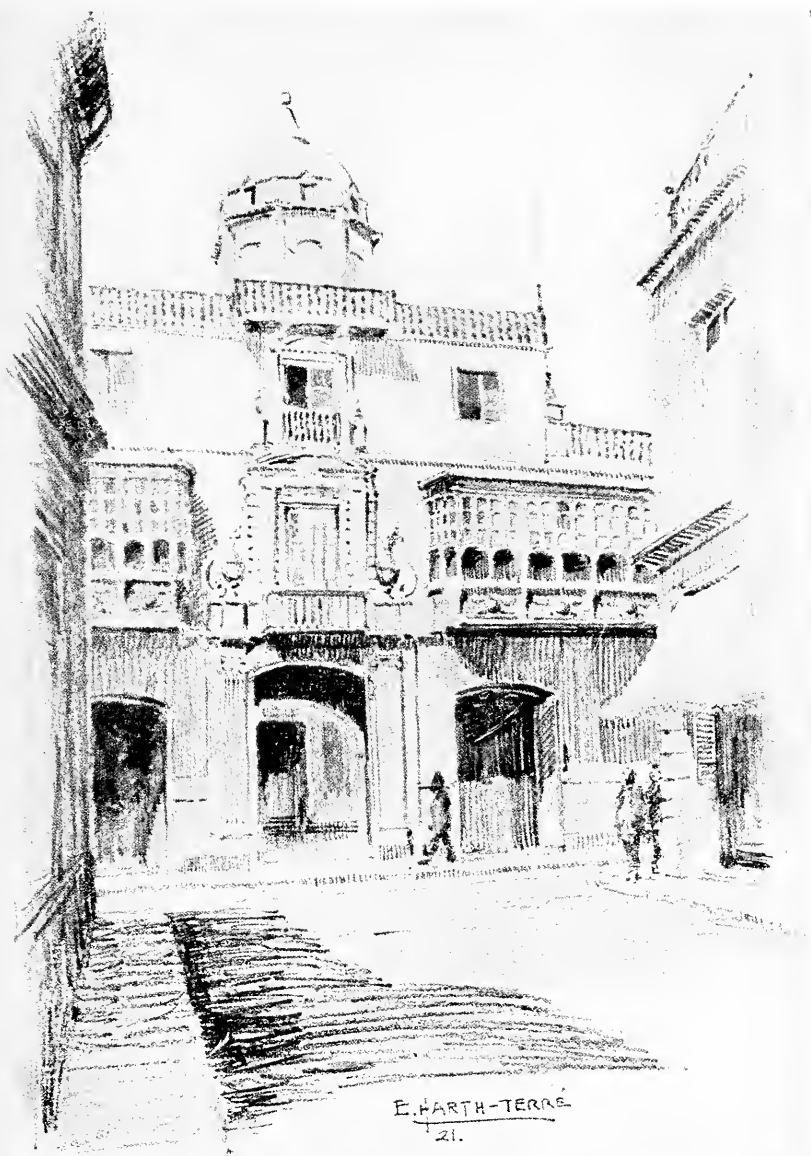
This church is perhaps the most important example of colonial architecture in Lima. Its altars, ceilings, choir stalls and pulpit are notable for their carvings; the sacristy is famed for its alabaster font, and the patio of the convent for its marvelous tiles, the first to reach Lima. The convent contains a series of magnificent paintings depicting the life of Saint Francis.

Hercules with the words *Non Plus Ultra* which, according to the legend, signified there was no land beyond the twin pillars symbolic of the promontories of Abila and Calpe (Ceuta and Gibraltar) rent asunder by Hercules in one of his 12 labors. With the discovery of the New World, which refuted that Greek legend, Emperor Charles the Fifth had the *Non* removed from this phrase and took as a device the pillars with the words *Plus Ultra*, which he used with the double-headed eagle and the imperial crown. In a section of the aforementioned decree granting a coat of arms to the University of San Marcos at Lima, the bearings are fully described, and of the pillars of Hercules with the words *Plus Ultra* it is said that they are "the device of this New World."

In the valley of the Rimac, which the Spaniards mispronounced *Lima*, the City of the Kings was founded. The name of Rimac belonged to an Indian tribe which lived in the valley. In the most ancient colonial documents Lima appears as the name of the valley, and in one and another sometimes the word is used to designate the city, as for instance in ordinances issued by the Viceroy Toledo in 1543. In the sixteenth century and at the end of the seventeenth, the city was called in official documents the City of the Kings, but the Spanish mispronunciation of the indigenous name began to be used by a larger and larger number of people, and gradually replaced the original title. In the royal decrees of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth, the capital is called the City of Lima. To the meaning of this word is due the introduction in the coat of arms of a lime, *lima* in Spanish signifying lime. This is seen in official documents subsequent to the independence; before that time it had not appeared. The fountain in the Main Square, which is adorned with the most ancient coat of arms which we know, has in its outer border as a simple adornment the fruit mentioned, which also appears on the coat of arms granted to the University of San Marcos. It is not to be doubted that the artists of the time considered this fruit an emblem of the city.

Very few are the documents and works of art which display the arms of the city of Lima. However, one of the eight viceroys promoted from Mexico to Peru, Don García Sarmiento de Sotomayor, Conde de Salvatierra, who came to Lima in 1648, set up in the main square a bronze fountain, on which is to be seen the only coat of arms in the city of Lima which is practically in accordance with the original. Even here, however, the Latin words around the shield are not in the correct order. On the silver key of the city, which in 1806 was delivered to the viceroy, Don José F. de Abascal, and which is now cherished by Don José Antonio de Lavalle, is seen the double-headed eagle wearing a king's crown and supported by the pillars of Hercules which, as has been said, were not only the device of the New





From drawing by E. Harth-Terré

#### A COLONIAL HOUSE

This house in Veracruz Street, now owned by Señora Oquendo de Subercasaux, shows the application of colonial architecture to private residences. The Spanish conquerors imposed upon Lima an architectural style combining Andalusian influences with the Moorish tradition of closed blinds from behind which the ladies of Lima were able to see without being seen, a privacy in consonance with their use of veils in the street. Notwithstanding the balconies which gave a distinctive character to the city, the richness of the houses was not as evident in their façades as in their interiors. The leisurely life of that time is revealed in the spaciousness of the patios which permitted the entrance of the calash then in use. The large rooms were distinguished during the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries by luxurious furnishings rivaling those of European houses.

World but also, with the royal crown, part of the Spanish arms. The emblematic fruit of the city finishes the whole. This eagle is a false interpretation of the double eagle of the shield.

In the extensive search which I made to find some coat of arms of the city on the buildings of Lima, I found only one. This should be described because it is unique and almost unknown. It is on a triangular basin now surrounded by the walls of a building, at the entrance to the famous Paseo de Aguas. On the three sides appear, respectively, the Spanish coat of arms with the royal crown, the escutcheon of Viceroy Don Manuel Amat with the date 1772, and the coat of arms of the City of the Kings to which I refer. These consist of three parts—the eight-pointed star, the heraldic pillars of Hercules with the words *Plus Ultra*, and between them the lime surmounted by a crown, symbolic of Lima. The whole is inclosed in a baroque border, more or less in the shape of a shield.

One can not fail to be amazed that on all the colonial edifices which Lima boasts there is nowhere to be seen the city's coat of arms. Some representations must have been destroyed in the course of years. It is probably true that an additional reason for this lack was the general ignorance of the city's escutcheon, usually replaced by the arms of the mother country. This also explains the reason for the successive modifications of the coat of arms until we arrive at the republican arrangement, which was used until a short time ago, and the incomplete design which is employed to-day.



THE PRESIDENTIAL PALACE, LIMA

## URUGUAY SENDS A WOMAN TO THE DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE

It is a matter of congratulation that Dr. Paulina Luisi, a noted Uruguayan physician, feminist, and authority in social problems, has been appointed by the Government of her country an assistant delegate to the Disarmament Conference now in session at Geneva. She is a woman of international outlook who has participated in many important gatherings. Doctor Luisi and Miss Mary E. Woolley, president of Mount Holyoke College, and a member in full of the United States delegation, are the only two women from the American Republics. The Uruguayan delegates are Their Excellencies Pedro Cosío and Enrique E. Buero, Ministers of Uruguay to Germany and Belgium, respectively.

This is by no means the first time that Doctor Luisi has gone to Geneva in an official capacity. As a member of the League of Nations Child Welfare Commission and Commission on Traffic in Women and Children, she has for some years lent her valuable advice and counsel to the solution of problems of social importance.

Doctor Luisi was a pioneer feminist; first of all by her deeds, then by her words. This does not mean that she was a notoriety seeker, but that, fearless of leading the way, by sheer ability and strength of purpose she achieved results which no Uruguayan woman before her had ever attained. Thus she was the first woman to receive from the University of Uruguay a bachelor's degree, and the first to receive a doctor's degree in medicine; the first to give courses in the university and the first to serve on a university jury deciding the award of a professorship by competition.

Strengthened in her convictions by her own experiences, Doctor Luisi went on to play an important part in feminism at home and abroad. She founded the Uruguayan National Council of Women, affiliated with the International Council, and is a member of the most notable organizations for women's rights, such as the International Alliance for Women's Suffrage and the International Feminist Association.

As a teacher and as a practicing physician, Doctor Luisi was brought into intimate contact with many of the special problems of women and children. She has contributed numerous papers on subjects concerning them to *Acción Femenina*, the magazine which she herself edited, and to leading Argentine, Italian, Swiss, and other Uruguayan reviews. Her articles discuss medical, literary, educational, and sociological subjects, as well as suffrage.

# THE RIVERS AND LAKES OF HAITI

By LUC DORSINVILLE

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**H**AITI has neither river nor lake of great size, although it possesses numerous streams and inland bodies of water.

The lakes and ponds of Haiti include reservoirs formed by dams, such as that of Bois-Neuf near Saint-Marc and that of Miragoane, southeast of the town of the same name; volcanic ponds in the craters of extinct volcanoes, such as Bossier pond near Jacmel; and Saumatre Lake, the only one of its kind, which in some past age became isolated from the ocean.

Saumatre (or Assuei) Lake, the largest of these bodies of water, is situated at the eastern end of the Cul-de-Sac Plain, near the middle of the boundary between Haiti and the Dominican Republic. About 18 miles long, it covers approximately 43 square miles and lies 46 feet above sea level; it is navigable throughout. This lake has brackish water—hence its name—and possesses no apparent outlet to the sea. Since for some time its waters have been receding and more than 450 acres of land have been released to the luxuriant vegetation of the tropical zone, it may be inferred that a subterranean channel has certainly opened between the lake and the Gulf of Gonave in consequence of the slow sinking of the whole island of Haiti, especially as this same phenomenon is taking place on the shores of Lake Enriquillo, just across the border in the Dominican Republic.

As for the watercourses of Haiti, they are abundant and contribute to the pleasant aspect and to the economic value of the land. Rarely does one find a region as well watered as the Central Plateau.

These watercourses may be classified into four well-determined groups:

- (1) On the Atlantic slope, streams flowing northward.
- (2) On the slope of the Gulf of Gonave, streams flowing westward.
- (3) On the slope of the Gulf of Gonave, streams flowing northward.
- (4) On the slope of the Caribbean sea, streams flowing westward, southwestward, or southward.

The Artibonite is the only one of these watercourses which might be called an important river. The others are all lovely streams or majestic torrents whose waters vary in depth. They fertilize some thirty-odd plains and plateaus. Many of the streams contain fish; alligators are found in some. Unfortunately, so far no canal has yet



Courtesy of Lue Dorsinville

## THE ARTIBONITE VALLEY

The longest and most important river of Haiti follows a serpentine course westward across the entire Republic to the Gulf of Gonave.

been made between the principal streams, although some of them might be united to produce abundant water power.

If the fertile soil of Haiti is its greatest asset, it may also be said that in the rivers lies its great reserve for the future.

One may divide the chief watercourses of the country as follows:

Main rivers: The Artibonite and Grand' Anse, flowing into the Gulf of Gonave; the Trois Rivières, flowing into Tortue Canal on the northern, or Atlantic slope; and the Ravine du Sud and Grande Rivière de Jacmel, flowing into the Caribbean. These rivers, except the Artibonite, are entirely within the Republic of Haiti.

Secondary rivers: The Massacre, Limbe, Ester, Rivière de Montrouis, Grise, Momance, Rivière de Nippes, Rivière de Cavaillon, Pedernales, etc.

The *Artibonite* (200 miles in length) is the longest river in the Republic of Haiti. It rises in the Dominican Republic southeast of the town of Restauracion at an altitude not yet definitely determined, and flows first southwest, then northwest, before passing through the Grande-Saline, or salt plain, to a muddy outlet on the Gulf of Gonave.

In Haitian territory the Artibonite runs a tranquil course. Its waters are yellowish, and after the spring rains it overflows its bed, covering a good part of the neighboring plain with a fine layer of gravel and clay.

From Mirebalais to its mouth its average width is 200 feet; minimum flow, 424 cubic feet per second.

Into the Artibonite flow from the right the Libon, Oceana, Guayamouc or Canot (formed by the junction north of Hinche of the Frio and the Bouyaha), and Thomonde Rivers.

The Bouyaha-Guayamouc (Canot), 65 miles long, unites with the Artibonite southeast of Thomonde, after having run a southeasterly course through the Valley of Gonave. The town of Saint-Raphael



Courtesy of Luc Dorsinville

#### LES TROIS RIVIERES, NEAR GROS MORNE

Les Trois Rivières, one of the larger rivers of Haiti, flows northwesterly to the Atlantic.

is located on the Bouyaha and Hinche on the Guayamouc (Canot). At Hinche the minimum flow of the Guayamouc is 32 cubic feet per second. The Frio River rises in the Black Mountains, while the source of the Bouyaha is in the massif northeast of Marmelade.

The Artibonite receives on the left the Marcassia, Juan de Vera, Tumbe, Bois de Verrettes, and Tapion. The Juan de Vera flows into the Artibonite about 4 miles northeast of Lascahobas. Rising in the Tonnerre Mountains of the Matheux Chain, it has a minimum flow of 91.8 cubic feet per second.

The Fer-a-Cheval unites with the Artibonite near Mirebalais, its source being in the Grand-Bois Mountains; minimum flow, 53 cubic feet per second.

The Tumbe joins the Artibonite northwest of Mirebalais, coming from the Pensez-y-Bien Mountains. This river has several affluents of its own, among them being the Saut-d'Eau, on which are found the beautiful falls of Ville-Bonheur, a mile west of the village of that name. Minimum flow of the Tumbe, 15.5 cubic feet per second; minimum flow of the Saut-d'Eau, 9 cubic feet per second.

The Bois River rises in the Matheux Mountains and flows into the Artibonite southeast of Les Verrettes.

The *Trois-Rivieres* (60 miles in length), which has its principal source northeast of Marmelade in the Massif du Nord, flows in a general northwesterly direction past Plaisance and Gros-Morne to the Atlantic coast, just west of Port-de-Paix.

Because the bed of this stream is largely composed of gravel and sand, it is subject to change. The course often lies along the side of a steep mountain rising abruptly on the right and falling off precipitously on the left.

The affluents of the *Trois-Rivieres*, although numerous, are of small importance.

The *Grand'Anse*, or *Jeremie River* (31 miles long) rises in the basaltic rocks of the Hotte Mountains among the Irois and Jeremie hot springs in the western part of the Department du Sud. It flows in a general northeasterly direction until it empties into the Gulf of La Gonave near the town of Jeremie.

Numerous streams of minor importance, on some of which are found lovely cascades, flow into the Grand Anse. The bed of the Grand Anse is composed of gravel.

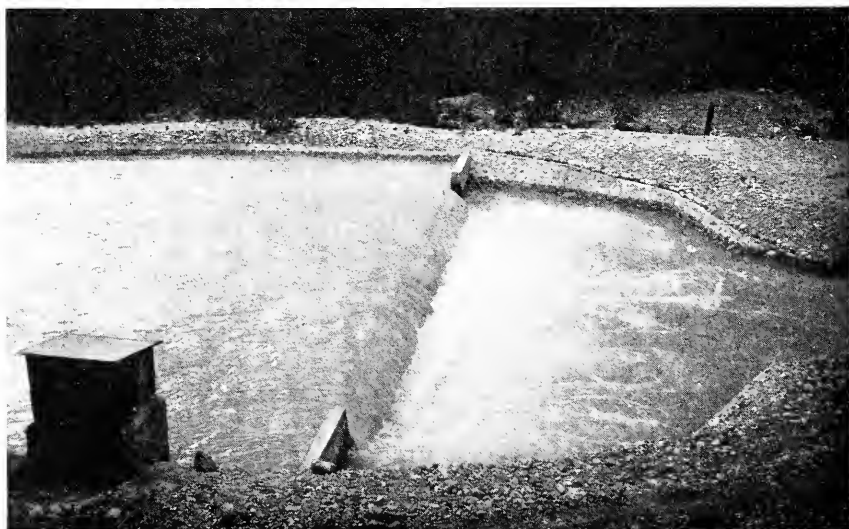
The *Ravine du Sud* rises in the volcanic rocks of the southern slope of the Hotte Mountains, flowing southeast into the Caribbean Sea at the town of Les Cayes. About a quarter of a mile above this town the water of the river is diverted into the Avezac Canal to irrigate the plain along the left bank of the river. About the same distance downstream the Levy Reservoir distributes to all the left bank the water drained off by the Avezac Canal, serving an area of 4,900 acres. The river, which has a gravelly and rocky bed, often rises very suddenly and sometimes overflows the plain and even part of Les Cayes. It is the principal factor in the fertility of the countryside.

The Gosseline branch of the *Grande-Riviere de Jacmel* rises in the southern part of the Trouin hills of the Selle range, and a little farther east the Jacmel River has its source in the same mountains. These two right-hand branches flow southwest and unite with the so-called Gauche River, which flows southeast. West of the town de Jacmel these three streams unite in the *Grande-Riviere de Jacmel*, which flows into the Caribbean Sea. Some effort has been made to utilize the water of this stream for sections of Jacmel.



AN IRRIGATION CANAL

A part of the Momance irrigation system in southern Haiti.



IRRIGATION WEIR

A canal of the Riviere Blanche irrigation system in the Cul-de-Sac plain.



As for secondary streams, these are very numerous, but their economic importance is small. The most important are:

On the Atlantic coast: 1, The Massacre, which rises south of the Loma del Cabrera, in the Central Mountains of the Dominican Republic; 2, The Trou, Grande Riviere du Nord, Haut du Cap, Limbe, Ester,<sup>1</sup> Saint-Louis du Nord, Moustiques, and Jean-Rabel.

On the Caribbean slope: 1, Flowing into the Gulf of La Gonave, the Quinte or Les Gonaïves, the tranquil Ester,<sup>1</sup> the Saint-Marc, the Cul-de-Sac or Grise, the Momance, the Grande Riviere de Nippes, the Baraderes, the Roseaux, the Voldrogue, and the Guinaudee; 2, on the Caribbean slope proper, the Abricots, Dame-Marie, l'Anse d'Hainault, the Tiburon, Islet, Cavaillon, Pedernales, and others.

The Massacre and Pedernales Rivers owe their importance to their rôle as part of the boundary between the Dominican Republic and Haiti. The latter rises in the Bahoruco Mountains in the Dominican Republic, and flows in a general southerly direction. It drains 139 square miles. On both the Dominican and the Haitian side the water is used for irrigation.

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<sup>1</sup> There are two streams of this name.—Editor.



STREAM GAGING IN HAITI

# LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE IN 1930—A GENERAL SURVEY

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

*Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union*

## PART II <sup>1</sup>

### SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS

#### ARGENTINA

The total foreign trade of the Republic for 1930 aggregated \$1,312,688,316, being a decrease of \$448,580,719, or 25.4 per cent, as compared with 1929. Imports to the value of \$717,007,261 decreased by \$119,130,173, or 14.2 per cent, and exports, amounting to \$595,-681,055, declined by \$329,450,546, or 35.6 per cent.

#### *Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930 <sup>a</sup>	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	836,137	717,007	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	147,410	127,000	17.6	17.7
France.....	51,174	40,000	6.1	5.5
Germany.....	96,099	85,000	11.4	7.8
United States.....	220,360	155,000	26.3	21.6
Exports (total).....	925,132	595,681	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	297,627	217,636	32.1	36.5
France.....	65,844	39,895	7.1	6.6
Germany.....	92,589	52,533	10.0	8.8
United States.....	90,752	57,665	9.8	9.6

<sup>a</sup> Country segregations estimated.

<sup>1</sup> For Part I, see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, February, 1932.

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	836,137	717,007	Exports (total) .....	925,132	595,681
Combustibles and lubricants.....	142,940	140,171	Maize .....	162,996	103,815
Textiles and manufactures.....	155,391	122,572	Wheat.....	269,633	89,051
Machinery and vehicles.....	139,505	97,752	Frozen and chilled beef.....	88,466	85,968
Iron and steel and manufactures.....	99,899	80,756	Linseed.....	116,549	85,331
Foodstuffs.....	65,605	70,172	Wool.....	67,565	44,918
Chemical and pharmaceutical products.....	41,937	36,215	Oxhides, salt.....	33,657	30,899
Metals (excluding iron) and manufactures.....	32,228	30,434	Meats, preserved.....	15,998	16,152
Stones, earths, glass, and ceramics.....	32,466	29,277	Mutton, frozen.....	13,667	13,976
Paper, cardboard and manufactures.....	29,877	28,483	Butter.....	11,243	12,966
Rubber and manufactures.....	29,126	23,193	Quebracho extract.....	13,447	12,543
Wood and manufactures.....	25,029	21,706	Quebracho logs.....	3,796	3,030
Tobacco and manufactures.....	10,439	9,998	Cotton, raw.....	6,973	8,354
Beverages.....	5,565	5,134	Oats.....	13,428	7,782
			Tallow and grease.....	11,248	7,206
			Oxhides, dry.....	7,125	6,143
			Wheat flour.....	7,575	5,844
			Beef cattle.....	6,997	5,536
			Bran and pollard.....	5,970	4,644
			Sheepskins, unwashed.....	4,619	4,030
			Frozen meat offal.....	3,724	3,943
			Casein.....	3,544	2,931
			Barley.....	8,121	2,513
			Meat extract.....	2,473	2,473
			Rye.....	6,895	237

## BOLIVIA

For the year 1930 Bolivia's foreign trade totaled \$58,289,051, compared with \$77,169,874 in 1929, a decrease of \$18,880,823, or 24.4 per cent. Of this total, the value of imports was \$21,219,134, and of exports \$37,069,917. Imports declined by \$4,848,171, or 18.5 per cent, and exports by \$14,032,652, or 27.4 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	26,067	21,219	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	4,322	3,540	16.5	16.6
France.....	846	666	3.2	3.1
Germany.....	3,554	2,880	13.6	13.5
United States.....	8,790	5,900	33.7	27.8
Exports (total) .....	51,103	37,070	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	39,463	28,345	77.2	76.4
France.....	162	139	.3	.3
Germany.....	694	877	1.3	2.3
United States.....	7,114	4,807	13.9	12.9

Statistics of trade by commodities are not available for the whole of 1930, other than exports of tin, which amounted to \$27,629,616. A statement of the mineral exports for the first nine months of 1930, with comparative figures for the same period of 1929, follows:

*Exports of minerals*

[Thousands of dollars]

Minerals	January to September	
	1929	1930
Total mineral exports .....	32, 117	25, 933
Tin .....	26, 448	22, 124
Silver .....	2, 019	1, 565
Copper .....	1, 487	757
Lead .....	978	692
Zinc .....	87	327
Wolframite .....	314	240
Antimony .....	405	125
Bismuth .....	349	103
Gold .....	30	-----

## BRAZIL

The foreign trade of Brazil in 1930 amounted to \$567,252,781, consisting of imports to the value of \$253,181,916, and exports of \$314,070,865. The total trade figure shows a decrease of \$304,205,109 or 34.9 per cent. Imports declined by \$162,923,061, or 39.1 per cent, and exports, by \$141,282,048, or 31 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	416, 105	253, 182	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom .....	79, 943	48, 919	19. 2	19. 3
France .....	22, 100	12, 779	5. 3	5. 0
Germany .....	52, 788	28, 856	12. 6	11. 3
United States .....	125, 395	61, 163	30. 1	24. 1
Exports (total) .....	455, 353	314, 071	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom .....	29, 651	25, 616	6. 5	8. 1
France .....	50, 653	28, 822	11. 1	9. 1
Germany .....	39, 882	28, 632	8. 7	9. 1
United States .....	192, 240	127, 409	42. 2	40. 5

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	416, 105	253, 182	Exports (total) .....	455, 353	314, 071
Machinery, apparatus, and tools .....	62, 717	35, 776	Coffee .....	323, 198	197, 427
Wheat .....	36, 708	28, 625	Frozen and chilled meats .....	13, 133	17, 647
Iron and steel and manufactures .....	40, 616	22, 418	Hides and skins .....	19, 916	15, 351
Gasoline .....	17, 354	15, 034	Yerba maté .....	12, 545	10, 301
Patent fuel, coal, and coke .....	17, 228	14, 455	Cacao .....	12, 378	9, 909
Wheat flour .....	11, 748	9, 954	Cotton, raw .....	18, 155	9, 139
Codfish .....	9, 272	7, 454	Tobacco and manufactures .....	7, 938	8, 085
Chemical products and drugs .....	9, 520	7, 081	Oil-producing seeds .....	7, 591	6, 021
Paper and manufactures .....	8, 706	6, 463	Wool .....	3, 586	4, 762
Cement .....	7, 391	5, 102	Fruits and nuts .....	4, 420	4, 727
Kerosene .....	6, 844	5, 060	Rubber .....	7, 209	3, 628
Fuel oil .....	4, 066	4, 558	Rice .....	658	2, 744
Wines, spirits, and liquors .....	6, 973	4, 236	Sugar .....	1, 065	2, 724
Cotton piece goods .....	12, 912	3, 427	Carnauba wax .....	2, 921	2, 524
Automobiles .....	26, 804	1, 636	Timber and lumber .....	3, 145	2, 439
			Manganese .....	3, 371	1, 565

## CHILE

The foreign trade of Chile in 1930 aggregated \$331,702,429, showing a decrease of \$144,301,555, or 30.3 per cent, as compared with the previous year. Imports in 1930 were valued at \$170,090,500 and exports at \$161,611,929. Compared with 1929, imports declined by \$26,767,013, or 13.5 per cent, and exports by \$117,534,542, or 42.1 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	196,858	170,091	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	34,811	26,006	17.6	15.2
France.....	8,641	8,550	4.3	5.0
Germany.....	30,419	28,780	15.4	16.9
United States.....	63,348	57,030	32.1	33.5
Exports (total).....	279,146	161,612	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	37,297	23,734	13.3	14.6
France.....	17,110	9,734	6.1	6.0
Germany.....	24,061	12,692	8.6	7.8
United States.....	70,887	41,095	25.3	25.4

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	196,858	170,091	Exports (total).....	279,146	161,612
Industrial machinery, apparatus and tools.....	28,026	26,827	Nitrate.....	117,545	72,205
Manufactures of iron and steel...	8,251	10,909	Bar copper.....	112,655	54,058
Cotton textiles.....	12,645	12,520	Vegetables.....	4,754	5,099
Woolen fabrics.....	7,237	6,253	Wool.....	6,846	3,654
Iron and steel simply wrought...	6,249	5,926	Iron ore.....	1,878	3,221
Petroleum, crude.....	5,963	4,934	Iodine.....	9,791	2,388
Gasoline.....	3,316	4,212	Copper ore.....	3,348	1,913
Lubricating oil.....	1,539	1,619	Oats.....	1,764	1,518
Kerosene.....	451	422	Wheat flour.....	650	592
Automobiles.....	7,925	4,445	Cattle hides.....	127	167
Cattle.....	6,216	4,138			
Sugar, raw and refined.....	6,794	4,073			
Bags for nitrate.....	5,304	3,635			
Edible oils.....	2,601	2,253			
Rice.....	1,953	2,081			
Locomotives.....	747	1,984			
Drugs and medicines.....	2,156	1,981			
Chemical products.....	2,346	1,807			
Tea.....	2,255	1,701			
Newsprint paper.....	1,739	1,296			

## COLOMBIA

Colombia's total foreign trade in 1930 amounted to \$170,283,152, being a decrease of 30.6 per cent as compared with 1929. Of this total, \$60,955,859 comprised imports and \$109,327,293 exports. Compared with the previous year, imports declined by 50.2 per cent and exports by 11.1 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	122, 586	60, 956	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	17, 640	7, 573	14.3	12.4
France.....	6, 908	3, 264	5.6	5.3
Germany.....	17, 677	7, 845	14.4	12.8
United States.....	56, 309	27, 681	45.9	45.4
Exports (total).....	123, 066	109, 327	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	5, 857	3, 247	4.7	2.9
France.....	549	658	.4	.6
Germany.....	2, 616	3, 641	2.1	3.3
United States.....	92, 532	88, 926	75.1	81.3

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	122, 586	60, 956	Exports (total).....	123, 066	109, 327
Textiles.....	33, 413	15, 338	Coffee.....	74, 580	59, 805
Foodstuffs and condiments.....	17, 670	12, 562	Petroleum.....	26, 206	25, 504
Material for the arts and trades.....	2, 764	885	Gold.....	5, 039	8, 791
Metals and manufactures of.....	12, 171	5, 771	Bananas.....	8, 585	8, 478
Agricultural and mining imple- ments and machinery.....	10, 689	4, 527	Hides and skins.....	4, 050	3, 638
Railway cars, carriages, automo- biles, etc.....	10, 391	3, 568	Platinum.....	2, 545	1, 831
Drugs and medicines.....	5, 188	3, 011	Panama hats.....	174	318
Electrical material.....	3, 376	2, 574	Tobacco.....	226	192
Paper and cardboard.....	4, 357	2, 424	Coconuts.....	207	184
Glassware, earthenware, etc.....	3, 930	1, 761			
Hides and skins and manufac- tures.....	3, 534	1, 627			
Lighting and fuel.....	2, 371	1, 510			

## ECUADOR

The total foreign trade of the Republic in 1930 aggregated \$28,925,529, consisting of imports to the value of \$12,796,221 and exports of \$16,129,308. A decrease in the total trade value of 15.3 per cent is shown by these figures. Imports decreased by \$4,170,832, or 24.5 per cent, and exports by \$1,078,056, or 6.2 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	16, 967	12, 796	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	3, 239	2, 327	19.0	18.1
France.....	752	373	4.4	2.9
Germany.....	2, 142	1, 668	12.6	13.0
United States.....	6, 929	5, 137	40.8	40.1
Exports (total).....	17, 207	16, 129	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	465	505	2.7	3.1
France.....	944	1, 060	5.4	6.5
Germany.....	1, 013	1, 150	5.8	7.1
United States.....	7, 785	7, 605	45.2	47.1

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	16,967	12,796	Exports (total) .....	17,537	16,129
Machinery and apparatus .....	1,506	1,134	Cacao .....	4,251	4,681
Drugs and chemicals .....	699	635	Petroleum, crude .....	3,064	3,160
Wheat flour .....	572	594	Coffee .....	2,334	1,890
Mineral oils and derivatives .....	534	505	Straw hats .....	1,358	1,681
Woolen manufactures .....	706	481	Mineral ores .....	1,422	1,478
Lard .....	596	455	Rice .....	851	742
Paper and cardboard and manu- factures .....	531	449	Ivory nuts .....	1,521	689
Silk and manufactures .....	582	380	Fresh fruits .....	253	234
Perfumery and toilet articles .....	269	278	Sugar .....	198	180
Wines and spirits .....	337	269	Cattle hides .....	144	71
Hides and skins and manufac- tures .....	363	203	Crude rubber .....	37	12
Glass and glassware .....	113	156			
Pigments, paints and varnishes ..	186	155			
Cement .....	154	134			

## PARAGUAY

Paraguay's foreign trade in 1930 amounted to \$28,436,337, as compared with \$26,490,565, being an increase of \$1,945,772, or 7.3 per cent. The value of imports (\$14,685,178) exceeded that of 1929 by \$1,250,586, or 9.3 per cent, while the value of exports (\$13,751,159) increased by \$695,186, or 5.3 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	13,435	14,685	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom .....	1,632	2,008	12.1	13.6
France .....	701	837	5.2	5.7
Germany .....	1,268	1,319	9.4	8.9
United States .....	2,515	2,338	18.7	15.9
Exports (total) .....	13,056	13,751	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom .....	47	34	.3	.2
France .....	495	208	3.7	1.5
Germany .....	121	215	.9	1.5
United States .....	5	26	-----	.1

Of the imports, 35 per cent in 1929 and 28.7 per cent in 1930 were contributed by Argentina, but this trade consisted largely of goods originating in other countries. On the export side, 85 per cent of the total in 1929 and 91.2 per cent in 1930 went to Argentina, largely for transshipment to other countries.

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	13, 435	14, 685	Exports (total) .....	13, 056	13, 751
Foodstuffs.....	3, 344	2, 887	Quebracho extract.....	2, 682	3, 127
Cotton and manufactures.....	2, 370	2, 705	Meat extract.....	937	1, 970
Metals and manufactures.....	1, 334	1, 738	Cattle hides.....	1, 050	1, 243
Machinery and apparatus.....	1, 068	989	Yerba maté.....	1, 165	1, 094
Mineral oils.....	810	795	Canned meats.....	1, 314	1, 019
Vehicles.....	819	727	Cotton.....	724	906
Silk and manufactures.....	404	527	Timber.....	762	694
Linen and manufactures.....	455	490	Tallow.....	283	568
			Tobacco.....	1, 127	435
			Cattle.....	619	265
			Oil of petit grain.....	250	237
			Jerked beef.....	175	184

## PERU

Peru's foreign trade in 1930 reached a value of \$149,760,517, showing a decline of 28.6 per cent. Imports were valued at \$53,307,217 and exports at \$96,453,300. Compared with 1929, imports show a decline of \$22,633,767, or 29.8 per cent, and exports of \$37,579,284, or 28 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total) .....	75, 941	53, 307	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	11, 382	9, 004	14. 9	16. 8
France.....	2, 892	1, 722	3. 8	3. 2
Germany.....	7, 005	6, 145	10. 0	11. 5
United States.....	31, 766	20, 389	41. 8	38. 2
Exports (total) .....	134, 033	96, 453	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	24, 562	17, 882	18. 3	18. 5
France.....	1, 683	1, 864	1. 2	1. 9
Germany.....	8, 163	7, 295	6. 0	7. 5
United States.....	44, 630	37, 927	33. 1	39. 3

*Principal imports and exports*

Official statistics of imports by commodities for the year 1930 are not yet available. The principal exports for the years 1929 and 1930 were as follows:

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930
Exports (total) .....	134, 033	96, 453
Petroleum and products.....	51, 619	28, 047
Copper bars.....	26, 298	18, 003
Cotton, raw.....	20, 508	16, 605
Sugar.....	13, 508	10, 256
Lead.....	6, 342	4, 277
Vanadium.....	852	2, 956
Wool.....	4, 202	2, 831



## URUGUAY

Uruguay's foreign trade in 1930, amounting to \$197,772,431, closely approximated that of 1929, increasing by \$2,796,727, or 1.4 per cent. Imports in 1930 were valued at \$92,873,661 and exports at \$104,898,770. The decline in imports for the year was \$5,635,506, or 5.7 per cent and the increase in exports \$8,432,233, or 8.7 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	98, 509	92, 874	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	15, 740	15, 600	15. 9	16. 7
France.....	4, 609	3, 601	4. 6	3. 8
Germany.....	10, 081	9, 287	10. 2	9. 9
United States.....	30, 906	23, 309	31. 3	25. 0
Exports (total).....	96, 467	104, 899	100. 0	100. 0
United Kingdom.....	22, 232	34, 621	23. 0	33. 0
France.....	11, 314	12, 875	11. 7	12. 2
Germany.....	14, 331	13, 023	14. 8	12. 4
United States.....	11, 692	8, 061	12. 1	7. 6

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

	1929	1930		1929	1930
Imports (total).....	98, 509	92, 874	Exports (total).....	96, 467	104, 899
Mineral oil.....	15, 953	19, 216	Wool.....	29, 772	27, 552
Coal.....	4, 927	3, 920	Beef, frozen and chilled.....	13, 330	20, 942
Sugar.....	3, 819	3, 873	Hides and skins.....	12, 187	11, 794
Potatoes.....	2, 694	3, 136	Canned meats.....	7, 252	7, 167
Olive oil.....	1, 952	2, 654	Linseed.....	3, 733	6, 666
Timber.....	2, 647	2, 341	Frozen mutton.....	4, 888	6, 078
Automobiles.....	4, 270	1, 872	Tallow and grease.....	2, 774	4, 082
Structural iron.....	2, 161	1, 742	Sand.....	2, 446	2, 858
Tires and tubes.....	1, 250	1, 343	Meat extract.....	2, 253	2, 381
Newsprint paper.....	1, 049	984	Wheat flour.....	955	1, 762
Machinery, industrial.....	1, 141	862	Wheat.....	4, 325	1, 908
Silk piece goods.....	1, 587	807	Cattle.....	2, 226	1, 498
Galvanized-iron sheets for roofing.....	1, 130	697	Meat offal, frozen.....	1, 041	1, 023
Cement.....	510	382	Sheep.....	1, 164	884
			Jerked beef.....	1, 327	823

## VENEZUELA

The foreign trade of Venezuela in 1930 (fiscal year ended June 30) aggregated \$220,822,141, being a decrease of \$8,797,113, or 3.8 per cent as compared with the previous fiscal year's figure of \$229,619,254. The value of imports declined from \$88,269,374 in 1929 to \$77,455,414, in 1930, or 12.2 per cent, while the value of exports increased from \$141,349,880 to \$143,366,727, or 1.4 per cent.

*Distribution of foreign trade—four principal commercial countries*

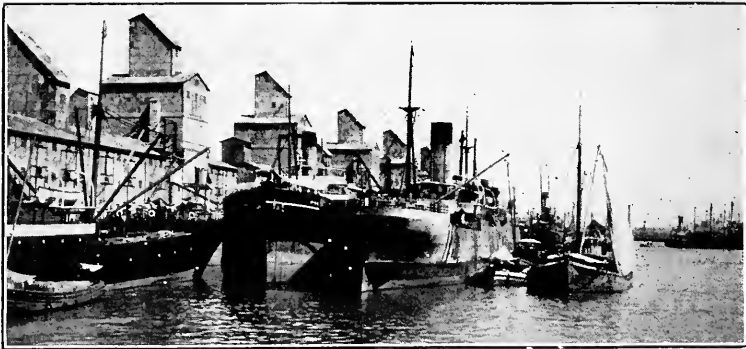
[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

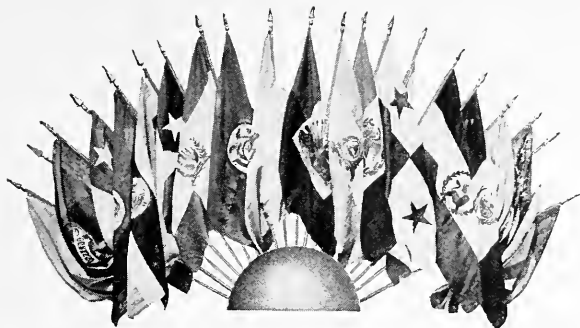
Country	1929	1930	Per cent of total	
			1929	1930
Imports (total).....	88,269	77,455	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	11,403	9,835	12.9	12.6
France.....	3,684	3,955	4.1	5.1
Germany.....	7,206	8,133	8.1	10.5
United States.....	51,225	40,441	58.0	52.2
Exports (total).....	141,350	143,367	100.0	100.0
United Kingdom.....	2,050	3,594	1.4	2.6
France.....	4,220	2,813	2.9	1.9
Germany.....	6,891	4,550	4.8	3.1
United States.....	40,848	34,266	28.8	23.9

*Principal imports and exports*

[Thousands of dollars]

Commodity	1929	1930	Commodity	1929	1930
Imports (total).....	88,269	77,455	Exports (total).....	141,350	143,367
Iron and steel and manufactures.....	7,520	6,665	Petroleum, crude.....	102,765	116,689
Tubing, iron, tin, and lead.....	10,298	5,985	Coffee.....	25,179	15,270
Cotton cloth.....	6,814	5,246	Cacao.....	4,739	3,918
Automobiles, passenger and truck.....	4,571	4,488	Gas oil.....	866	1,504
Machinery.....	3,812	3,915	Gasoline.....	1,654	1,450
Wheat flour.....	2,021	1,937	Gold.....	979	904
Wines and liquors.....	2,075	1,888	Goatskins.....	537	430
Drugs and medicines.....	1,782	1,800	Beef cattle.....	617	395
Cement.....	1,262	1,409	Pearls.....	275	275
Lard.....	1,250	1,240	Sugar.....	322	198
Rice.....	967	982	Balata.....	194	185
Railway material.....	615	537	Tonka beans.....	158	171
Leather.....	482	407	Asphalt.....	202	51
Gasoline and kerosene.....	279	365	Dividivi.....	58	43
Animal foodstuffs, preserved.....	359	361			





## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Recent accessions.*—Among the 121 titles added to the library during the past month three volumes by a former Minister of Foreign Affairs of Colombia, Dr. Antonio José Uribe, are notable. These volumes, listed in detail below, present what amounts to a history of the foreign policy of Colombia as related to American affairs. One deals with the relations of Colombia and the United States including all the negotiations concerning the Panama Canal; another with the relations between Colombia and Peru in the settlement of the boundary dispute and the question of the free navigation of rivers; and the third with the relations between Colombia and Venezuela, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Brazil, Nicaragua, and Panama.

Another publication worthy of special notice is the January, 1932, issue of the monthly *Revista Americana de Buenos Aires*, the address of which is Avenida P. Roque Sáenz Peña 530, Buenos Aires. This issue of 116 pages is wholly devoted to a newspaper directory of Latin America with a special title page, *La Prensa Ibero-Americana, 1932*. Price, 3 pesos.

Books of special note received are as follows:

*Colombia y el Perú.* Las cuestiones de límites y de libre navegación fluvial. Por el Doctor Antonio José Uribe. Bogotá, Editorial Minerva, s. a., 1931. xxv, 455 p. 8°.

*Colombia-Venezuela-Costa Rica-Ecuador-Brasil-Nicaragua y Panamá.* Las cuestiones de límites y de libre navegación fluvial. Por el Doctor Antonio José Uribe. Bogotá, Editorial Minerva, s. a., 1931. xxix, 632 p. 8°.

*Colombia y los Estados Unidos de América.* El canal interoceánico. La separación de Panamá. Política internacional económica. La cooperación. Por el Doctor Antonio José Uribe. Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1931. Iv, 442 p. 8°.

*El espíritu de la ciencia.* Meditaciones sobre el desarrollo de las ciencias y la evolución del pensamiento humano desde los comienzos de la cultura hasta los tiempos en que vivimos, con especial consideración de las preocupaciones actuales del hombre en los dominios de la investigación científica. Por el Dr. Daniel Martner. Santiago, Universidad de Chile, 1931. 354 p. 8°.

*Diccionario histórico biográfico y bibliográfico de Chile.* Por Virgilio Figueroa. Tomos IV y V. Santiago de Chile, Establecimientos gráficos Balcells & Cía., 1931. 2 v. in 1. 8°.

*Suelos y abonos.* Por el Dr. Adolfo Matthei. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1931. 290 p. 8°.

*El alba, 1818-1841.* Por Agustín Edwards. Valparaíso, Sociedad imprenta y litografía Universo, 1931. 357 p. front., plates. 8°.

*El Mundo.* Almanaque de El Mundo, 1932, año segundo. Publicado por La Compañía Editora "Almanaque de El Mundo." Habana, Compañía litográfica de La Habana, 1932. 512 p. illus. 8°.

*Anuario de la Sociedad cubana de derecho internacional.* Editado por la Sociedad cubana de derecho internacional. Volumen segundo a décimotercero. Habana, Imprenta "El siglo XX," 1918-1930. 12 v. 12°.

*La Sociedad cubana de derecho internacional y el pacto de la Liga de las naciones.* Editado por la sociedad cubana de derecho internacional. Habana, Imprenta "El siglo XX," 1920. 182 p. 12°.

*Historia de la Provincia de San Vicente de Chiapa y Guatemala de la orden de predicadores.* Compuesta por Fray Francisco Ximénez. Prólogo, estudios del lic. Agustín Mencos F. y Doctor Ramón A. Salazar. Tomo III. Guatemala, Tipografía nacional, 1931. xxxii, 432 p. 8°. (Biblioteca "Goathemala," volumen III.)

*Estudios bio-bibliográficos sobre Rafael Landívar.* Por J. Antonio Villacorta C. Contribución al segundo centenario del nacimiento del poeta. Guatemala, Tipografía nacional, 1931. 157 p. illus. 8°.

*Tratados y convenciones vigentes entre los Estados Unidos Mexicanos y otros países.* III: Tratados y convenciones multilaterales. México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1931. 366 p. 8°.

*El abismo blanco.* Por M. Becerro de Bengoa. Montevideo, Imprenta "El Siglo Ilustrado," 1931. 288 p. 8°. (Problemas sociológicos.)

*Sixth international road congress, Washington, 1930.* Actas del congreso. Washington, Imprenta del Gobierno, 1931. 354 p. illus., ports. 8°.

——— *Memorias.* Washington, Imprenta del gobierno, 1930. 1 v. 8°.

*Second Pan American health directors' conference, Washington, 1931.* Actas generales. Washington, Imprenta del Gobierno, 1932. 241 p. illus. 8°.

The following magazines were received in the Library for the first time during the past month:

*Vanguardia* (Revista mensual publicada por la NAP de Los Ángeles), Los Ángeles, Chile. (M). Año 1, No. 1, noviembre de 1931. 52 p. illus. 7½ x 10½ inches.

*Isle of Pines Post* (Published twice a month in the interest of the Isle of Pines, its prosperity and progress), Nueva Gerona. Vol. 5, No. 24, December 25, 1931. 8 p. illus. 8¾ x 11½ inches.

*El Agricultor Chileno* (Órgano oficial de la Asociación Chilena de Apicultores y Cooperativa Central Agrícola-Apícola, Ltda.), Santiago de Chile. (M). Año 1. No. 1, noviembre de 1931. 8 p. illus. 7½ x 10¼ inches.

*Boletim da Directoria Technica de Educação.* Pernambuco, Brasil. (Q). Anno 1. No. 1, Dezembro, 1931. 123 p. illus. 6 x 9 inches.

*Auto y Turismo* (Órgano Oficial del Touring Club Uruguayo), Montevideo (M). Año 1, No. 2. Diciembre de 1931. 4 p. illus. 13½ x 20 inches.

*Alma Latina* (Revista Quincenal Ilustrada), San Pedro Sula, Honduras. Año 1, No. 1, 1° de enero de 1932. 24 p. illus. 9¼ x 12¼ inches.

*Boletín del Servicio Nacional de Salubridad* (Órgano Oficial de la Dirección General de Sanidad), Santiago de Chile. (M). 80 p. illus. 6¼ x 9½ inches.

*La Revista Argentina* (Publicación mensual ilustrada), La Paz, Bolivia. 80 p. illus. 7 x 10¼ inches.

# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

## TREATIES AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

The Government of MEXICO is the first to ratify the Convention on the Regulation of Automotive Traffic signed on October 6 by the delegates of the American Republics to the Sixth International Road Congress, held in Washington from October 6 to 11, 1930. The convention, which had been approved by Congress, was signed by the President of the Republic on December 3, 1931.

The Radiotelegraphic Convention, signed in San Jose, Costa Rica, on August 20, 1931, between MEXICO and COSTA RICA, was approved by the Mexican Congress and signed by the President on December 3, 1931.

The Convention for the Exchange of Parcel Post, signed between COSTA RICA and CUBA on December 24, 1930, in San Jose, Costa Rica, was ratified by the President of Costa Rica on the same day, and approved by the Cuban Senate June 26, 1931, and ratified by the President on July 2. The ratifications were exchanged in San Jose on October 2, 1931.



## LEGISLATION

According to the Constitution of 1917, the UNITED STATES OF MEXICO was composed of 28 States, 3 Territories, and the Federal District. One of the Territories was Quintana Roo, on the eastern shore of the Yucatan peninsula, with an area of more than 19,000 square miles and a population of about 10,300; its extensive forests contain chicle-bearing and other valuable trees. By a decree passed by Congress and signed by the President on December 14, Quintana Roo was absorbed by the States of Campeche and Yucatan on December 31, 1931. The northern part of the former Territory was absorbed by the State of Yucatan, the southern by Campeche. The dividing line passes from the angle formed by the boundaries of Yucatan and Campeche, southeast and east to La Ascensión Bay. The islands of Mujeres and Cozumel, where important archeological remains have been found, were not included in the division, but made direct dependencies of the Federal Government, under the supervision of the Department of the Interior. The transfer of archives, documents, and symbols of authority to the two States took place with due ceremony in the city of Payo Obispo.

## AGRICULTURE

Government interest in agriculture throughout the Americas is being evinced by programs for furnishing adequate knowledge for the production of more, better, or newer products. Such a measure was the law signed on December 9, 1931 by the President of COLOMBIA whereby the National Council of Agriculture was established to promote agricultural research, instruction, and extension work.

The council will consist of seven *ad honorem* members, to be appointed for terms of three years apiece by certain specified public and private agricultural organizations and institutions, with a secretary to be named by the Minister of Industries from the Bureau of Agriculture. To aid and cooperate with the Government and the council, departmental agricultural committees of three will be established in every capital; each committee will appoint subcommittees, also of three—the mayor and two local agronomists—in all the municipalities in the Department.

The law reorganizes to some extent national agricultural instruction, beginning with the primary grades, where in both urban and rural schools particular emphasis is to be put, in the future, on agricultural subjects. Special short courses will be provided in all agricultural schools for those wishing to study further to become skilled farm hands or overseers. There will be three higher schools of agriculture, established at the sea level, upland, and mountain experiment stations; while all three will have the same general curriculum, each will specialize in the problems incident to the temperature and elevation that are particular to its zone. Extension work will be carried on by field agents, who will act as liaison officers between agricultural stations and farmers in solving local problems as well as in the distribution of seeds, plants, and other material supplied by the Government. When in connection with an experiment station or model farm there are also a higher school of agriculture and the corresponding extension service, the whole organization will be considered an agricultural institute. The law provides for three of these at first, at Bogota, Medellín, and Palmira, with others to be established as the need may arise. The institute at Bogota will be wholly controlled by the National Government, but the others will be jointly supported by the nation and the respective Department.

The law also authorizes the National Government to acquire machinery, draft animals, and other agricultural necessities to be rented at a moderate fee to small-scale farmers and stockraisers in every region of the country, and to provide more adequate agricultural statistics, in order to direct the activities of agriculturists in accordance

with the needs of the nation and the capacity of domestic and foreign markets.

In URUGUAY the Ministry of Industries issued two decrees of interest to raisers of sheep and other wool-bearing animals. Two commissions were established, one to study and recommend measures bearing on the sheep and wool-bearing animal industry, and the other to study the possibility of direct exportation of wool by the growers. The former commission is composed of Señores Demetrio Windmueller, Dermidio Macgillyenddy, Alberto Urtubey, Dr. Miguel C. Runino, and Dr. Daoiz L. Sanz; and latter, of Doctor Windmueller, Dr. Alejandro Gallinal, Señores Arturo Abella, Juan Debernardis, and Abelardo Rey O'Shanahan.

In HONDURAS, according to the message of the President to the National Congress on January 1, 1932, the breeding of better cattle was given an additional impetus by the distribution among the cattle raisers of the Republic of 32 pedigreed bulls. They were acquired and distributed by the Institute of Animal Husbandry of San Luis Pajón to improve the quality of the herds throughout the country, and early reports indicate that the program will be successful.

One of the major agricultural questions for any nation is that of the proper diversification of interests. A solution of this problem often solves two others closely related—overproduction of a staple on which the nation has allowed its economy to become too dependent, or the necessity of importing foodstuffs which the nation is capable of producing within its own limits.

The Government of PERU is recommending an increased production of fruit as a solution of the latter problem. Twenty years ago nearly all the fruit requirements of the country were met by domestic production. When, as a result of the World War, the price of cotton rose abnormally, many of the fruit orchards were destroyed to give space to the more profitable crop. As a result, there was a sharp increase in Peruvian imports, both of fresh fruit—oranges, apples, bananas, pears, and cherries, mainly from Chile, Ecuador, and the United States—and of the canned product. Now that the value of cotton has declined, farmers in Peru are replanting their orchards, and the Government is considering the erection of canning factories at strategic points to insure the growers a stable market.

The problems arising from too great dependence on a single product, which is the situation BRAZIL has been facing for two years, are being solved partly by diversification (see BULLETIN for February, 1932), and partly by experiments to discover industrial uses for the unmarketed surplus. The plans for improving the coffee situation called for the elimination of inferior grades of bean. Part of the excess stock on hand was destroyed by burning and by dumping into the

sea. Such wasteful procedures, however, may be abandoned as the result of research carried on in December under the direction of the former Minister of Agriculture, Dr. Simões Lopes. It was discovered that from 100 kilograms (kilogram equals 2.2 pounds) of coffee 36 cubic meters (cubic meter equals 35.31 cubic feet) of gas and 44 kilograms of residue capable of being made into fuel briquets could be obtained, as against 30 meters of gas and 68 kilograms of residue from coal. Tests were made in December, 1931, at the gas plant furnishing Nictheroy, the capital of the State of Rio de Janeiro, and during the course of the experiments the city was supplied for three days with illuminating gas manufactured from coffee. There is no thought that other fuels will be replaced by the use of coffee products, but it has been proven that the lower grades of the present and of any future surplus stocks need not be a total economic loss when withdrawn from the food market.

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## FINANCE

*Conference of South American Central Banks.*—A conference of representatives of the central banks of BOLIVIA, CHILE, COLOMBIA, ECUADOR, and PERU met at Lima on December 2, 1931, to consider the common problems of those institutions during the present period of economic depression. A series of resolutions covering some 14 questions was made public when the conference adjourned on December 12. Although a wide and in many ways controversial field of financial policy is dealt with therein, two salient points stand out in connection with the recommendations: First, an absolute affirmation of adherence to the gold standard; and, second, a strongly worded recommendation stressing the importance of protecting the central banks from political interference. As a corollary to the second point, the necessity of maintaining a balanced national budget at all times is emphasized in order that governmental authorities may not be forced to seek credits through recourse to the central banks at the risk of monetary inflation.

Besides the South American delegates—the presidents and other high ranking officials of the participating central banks—a delegation from the Federal Reserve Bank of New York, headed by Prof. E. W. Kemmerer, of Princeton University, attended the conference as observers. Professor Kemmerer has played a major rôle in monetary and fiscal readjustments in Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru, and the organization of the central banks, which in these five Republics have grown out of his recommendations, is very similar. Colombia established the first central banking institution in the West Coast countries in 1923, Chile followed in 1925, Ecuador in 1927, and Bolivia in 1929; the Central Reserve Bank of Peru was formally



opened on September 3, 1931. The Lima conference, convened at the suggestion of the Central Bank of Bolivia, is the first attempt of these banks to discuss their mutual financial problems. At the proposal of the Peruvian delegation, another conference is scheduled to meet some time in 1933, to which will be invited all the central banking institutions of issue and rediscount in the Americas.

The first question taken up by the conference was the case of Bolivia, which has linked her currency to the pound sterling. It was considered inadvisable for the monetary unit of an American republic to be linked absolutely to that of another country, regardless of the economic and political importance of the latter, although such a situation as that existing in Bolivia, where exchange was linked to the pound sterling in order to prevent the damaging or wiping out of the export trade, is understandable. The conference, therefore, deemed that such a state of affairs should hold only temporarily, the establishment of monetary stability through a return to the gold standard being essential.

Reaffirming this conclusion, the conference stated in another resolution that inasmuch as the best prospect for obtaining a reasonably stable monetary medium appears at the present time to lie in the world-wide adoption of the gold standard, despite its recognized deficiencies, it looks with favor on all thoughtful efforts on the part of central banks and the Bank for International Settlements to perfect the gold standard and to make it a more stable measure of value.

Two of the measures which the conference considered of paramount importance were the assurance of budgetary equilibrium, so that governments may not find themselves obliged to seek in the central bank credits leading to an inflation of the note circulation, and the exclusive regulation by central banks of the circulating medium through the discount and rediscount of paper arising from agricultural, industrial, and commercial transactions; these measures should avoid inconvertibility of the bank note and act to prevent greater evils once adverse circumstances should necessitate the suspension of the conversion privilege. These two points—a balanced budget and “absolute independence of the central banks from any intervention by partisan politics and from any influence on the part of the government or of its officials beyond the scope of their usual powers”—were considered of such importance by the conference that they were made the subject of separate recommendations.

Two other measures were recommended as a result of the discussion of the problem of inconvertibility—the adoption of a policy of defense of the national economy to correct any lack of equilibrium in the international balance of payments resulting in heavy exports of gold, and the use of open-market operations by central banks to help

regulate the amount of money in circulation. The latter is an innovation in the monetary and banking systems organized according to the recommendations of Professor Kemmerer. The charters of the central banks represented at the conference do not authorize open-market operations, and some of them expressly forbid such an activity, perhaps because the respective markets are so restricted that the central banks may not be able to function along this line as efficiently as those of Europe and North America.

One of the most interesting matters discussed at the conference was that of the results of the control of foreign-exchange operations in the various countries. Since the opinion of the delegations was divided, the conference did not vote upon this question. Of the five countries represented at the conference, three, Bolivia, Chile, and Colombia, have established some form of exchange control, while in the remaining two, Ecuador<sup>1</sup> and Peru, there are no restrictions.

In Bolivia, a moratorium of 30 days on foreign obligations and debts payable in foreign currency, was established by a law of October 9, 1931. It was suspended by a decree of November 16, but the export of gold in any form is prohibited temporarily and exchange transactions are reserved to the Central Bank.

The Government of Chile, in order to prevent the exodus of gold from its Central Bank, promulgated on July 30, 1931, a law establishing a control over the purchase of foreign exchange and the transfer of funds abroad. An exchange control commission has been set up with powers, so far as settlement in foreign currency is involved, over contracts entered into in Chile, contracts executed abroad subsequent to July 30, 1931, and stock-exchange operations. In addition no contracts in foreign currency may be entered into without the prior consent of the commission.

Free trading in gold in Colombia was temporarily suspended on September 25, 1931, by a presidential decree, which also prohibited the export of that metal except by the Bank of the Republic, which retains powers for its purchase, sale, and export, and for the negotiation of foreign exchange. A commission to control exchange operations was appointed, with powers to permit exchange operations for legitimate commercial purposes and to prevent the transfer of gold for deposit abroad. The powers of the exchange control commission have since been transferred to the Bank of the Republic.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> On February 9, 1932, the Provisional Government of Ecuador suspended until November 10 the free operation of the gold standard. While the suspension is effective the Central Bank will not exchange notes in circulation either for gold or for gold drafts, except for the fulfillment of Government obligations. All exports of gold, except by the Government, are prohibited and export duties must be paid in drafts on foreign countries at the prevailing rate of exchange. The proceeds of export taxes are to be turned over to the Central Bank to be credited to the Government's account. The Central Bank is to convert into gold all its deposits in banks abroad and transfer the gold to its own vaults. The decree also provides that the Central Bank will loan the Government 15,000,000 sucres.

<sup>2</sup> Other Latin American countries which have established various forms of exchange control include Argentina, Brazil, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Uruguay.

The views of the representatives of the central banks where control has been established were expressed in the following resolution:

The results of exchange control which have been brought to the attention of the committee are not ample enough to permit the conference to draw a definite conclusion, there being both favorable and unfavorable aspects to be found. In any case, the most prudent course is deemed to be not to employ exchange control except under grave circumstances and as a temporary expedient, according to the particular conditions in each country.

The Colombian delegation submitted the following amplification of the foregoing resolution:

In the crisis which is disturbing the national economy of all countries at the present time, the lack of equilibrium in the balance of international payments stands out as one of the principal causes. In order to reestablish equilibrium, emergency measures have been taken in Colombia which may reduce imports and increase exports, thus defending her gold reserves, upholding the prestige of the Bank of the Republic, and maintaining monetary stability in so far as possible. One of these emergency measures has been the establishment of exchange control employed in some countries, together with other measures of a similar nature. Control of gold exports was used in Colombia with very great success in 1920 and now is being used in a more extensive way, among other purposes, to reduce imports and the expenditures of Colombians abroad and to retain gold within the country to the greatest extent possible during the period in which equilibrium in the balance of payment is being reestablished. Up to now the results have been satisfactory, but a recommendation in general terms indorsing the application of exchange control could not be made without studying for each country the particular conditions which might justify it, as well as the objects in view.

An opposite view was taken by the delegations from Ecuador and Peru. They approved the following resolution:

In taking up this matter, the conference has above all tried to keep in mind the fundamental factors determining exchange rates. . . . Taking this into account, the conference deems that any measure not conducive to the removal of fundamental causes is no more than the expression of a vain desire to control the external manifestation of such causes.

Considering, therefore, that the definite breakdown of a currency is the result of prime forces of which the rate of exchange is only an index, the conference does not recommend the adoption of measures of artificial control, because they affect only the external aspect of the phenomenon to be regulated, without affecting the basic causes, which lie in the real value of the currency unit as compared with that of other currencies.

The conference deems, moreover, that such measures create a psychological atmosphere adverse to the maintenance of the desired stability, since the establishment of control indicates that the currency is in imminent danger.

When the fundamental factors which bring about a critical condition are overlooked the problem can not be solved, because if in the country whose currency is in danger the lack of positive equilibrium in the balance of payments is due to the high level of prices and cost of production in relation to those of other countries, exports which are affected by such conditions and imports which increase as a result of them continue to aggravate the situation. In this connection the conference recommends that the central banks make free use of the discount rate as an effective means of controlling the money market, thus exerting a favorable

influence on the true causes affecting the internal value of the currency and consequently its international value.

The study of past experiences with exchange control strengthens the views of the conference in this matter. The manifest impossibility of an effective control of all foreign drafts brings in its train the development of an illegitimate exchange market, supported by those who try to evade the regulations governing both the sale and the purchase of exchange. The privileged position which the unscrupulous gain to the disadvantage of those who obey the law and the arbitrary nature of any attempt to ration the supply of foreign exchange when it is insufficient are facts which tend to weaken the position of the most carefully constructed exchange-control organization. In formulating these views, the conference wishes it clearly understood that it is not passing any judgment whatever on such control measures as may be in force at present in various countries, and which without doubt owe their origin to the temporarily severe character of the crisis, which attempts are being made to correct under the influence of special circumstances.

As to the financial centers in which the gold reserves of the central banks should be placed, the conference recommended that preference be given to those whose monetary systems are on the gold standard, where effective assurance is offered that the deposits which may be placed there will be paid at any time in gold. Considering the position of central banks which had reserves deposited in London in pounds sterling, the conference recommended that any central bank holding a part of its legal reserves in the form of deposits or other credits in any country suspending the gold standard should, at the earliest possible moment after suspension, convert these reserves into gold or its equivalent, taking the loss which may ensue and reestablishing its reserves completely on a gold basis.

For the purpose of giving greater security to deposits which the central banks may place abroad to utilize in supporting their currencies, the conference recommended that steps be taken to obtain from the countries where the banks are permitted to make such deposits assurance that they will be returnable at any time, without any restriction, and at the same gold parity at which they were made.

The credit policy of banks of issue, because it is so intimately linked with the regulation of the circulating medium and therefore with monetary stability, is carefully regulated wherever such banks are established in order to prevent any departure from basic principles. According to the conference, severe criticism of the policy of South American central banks is frequently heard, holding them responsible for aggravating the depression in their respective countries through severe restriction of credit; hence the public clamors for an amplification of credit in accordance with the demand in the belief that an increase in the note circulation would relieve the economic situation. The conference found no grounds for this criticism and stated emphatically that "central banks were not created as a substitute for commercial banks, nor can they be regarded as a panacea for economic ills subject to a slow and painful process of recovery. Central banks

complement and support the commercial banks which furnish credit to productive and commercial enterprises for current needs. Central banks should not on any account supply capital on a permanent basis either to member banks or to the private enterprise in need of it for the conduct of business."

In view of the present need for credit, however, the conference recommended various measures broadening slightly the legal dispositions which govern the central banks with respect to loans and rediscounts.

Studying the advisability of creating sources of international credit for central banks, the conference was of the opinion that it would not be prudent to attempt to obtain such credits unless they were sought with the assurance that they would be employed in liquidable short-term operations and that they could be repaid in the currency of the lending country. In an emergency due to a sudden and temporary reduction in its reserves, however, a central bank may find it necessary to obtain credits abroad. In such a case, the conference recommended that the purpose of restoring confidence would better be fulfilled if the credit were obtained through a foreign central bank than in the usual manner in the money market. To this end the conference recommended that the South American central banks, the Bank for International Settlements, and the central banks of other countries should study the possibility of entering into negotiations for the obtainment of such credits as a means of furthering the cause of central bank cooperation and international monetary stability.

The conference recognized the need of South American countries for foreign credits for productive purposes, especially for the financing of exportable products, with maturities which fall between those of short-term credits granted by commercial banks and those of longer term credits provided by world capital markets. It believed that such intermediate credits, with maturities of from one to three years, should constitute an important part of any plan to help these debtor countries fulfill their international financial obligations, and it recommended to the central banks that they cooperate in setting up new machinery to supply these credits and to stimulate the mobilization of such credit in the lending countries.

Service on external debts is not only an expense affecting public finance but also an obligation which affects international exchange. The situation brought about by the diminution of fiscal receipts as a consequence of the present crisis and, on the other hand, the lack of equilibrium in the balance of international payments produced by the decline in the value of exports explain in large part the difficulty of meeting the service of the external public debt on the part of those Latin American countries which can not pay these services without

compromising the stability of their exchange. In considering the problem of external debts from this point of view, the conference confined itself to placing these facts on record and hoping that the reestablishment of normal conditions would permit the realization of new and satisfactory settlements.

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## LABOR

*Housing.*—The improvement of health conditions among laborers by encouraging the construction of comfortable and hygienic living quarters not only has attracted widespread attention among social workers and labor leaders, but has come within recent years to form the basis for the adoption of extensive housing programs on the part of many governments. While much that is highly praiseworthy has already been accomplished toward this end in Latin America, much still remains to be done. The development of such projects, however, has not been localized in any one geographical area nor limited to the larger or more populous republics. Furthermore, the promotion of these activities has not been confined to Government agencies; public-welfare societies, architectural associations, construction firms, and public-spirited citizens all deserve a share in the credit for whatever measure of success has been attained. Although present economic conditions have had an indisputable effect on construction operations everywhere, they have in no wise caused the curtailment of this work.

Within recent months the first of a number of moderately priced houses, now under construction in Asunción for the families of laborers, was completed and opened for inspection, and an unspectacular but no less persistent campaign is being carried on by the Government of PARAGUAY through the Bureau of Lands and Colonies to improve the living conditions of the working class in rural sections of the country. In EL SALVADOR a similar project is being developed. There, a group of 50 houses is under construction. All of these houses, located in Santa Ana, are being built after much the same plan, which, while providing comfort, is such that they may be sold at a very low price. Funds for the financing of the project were advanced by several wealthy persons of the city.

In order to aid in the housing of the many families made homeless by the earthquake of April 2, 1931, the President of NICARAGUA has issued a decree setting aside an area of approximately 30 hectares (hectare equals 2.47 acres) of public lands in Managua to be parceled out among working class families. The land, which is divided into plots of 900 square meters (square meter equals 10.26 square feet) each, is being given as a free grant to the heads of families on condition that they erect a house according to specified regulations within

a period of two years. Land thus received may be neither leased nor sold.

Thanks to the generosity of employees of the Government of CUBA, thousands of unemployed in that country are now being provided comfortable lodging in Habana. All makeshift houses in various parts of the city have been burned and the occupants removed to sanitary quarters in the Purísima Market, at present known as the General Machado Camp for the Indigent. During January 700 persons received shelter, food, and medical attention there. The market site occupies an entire block and extra facilities are provided to take care of any overflow. In connection with the colony, a special commissary has been installed where approximately 3,500 families are obtaining rations of beans, rice, condensed milk, lard, sugar, and other staples. The monthly cost of the camp is reported to be 10,000 pesos. Similar camps have also been established in Matanzas and Santiago de Cuba, where 2,000 families are receiving assistance.

*Saturday half holiday in Paraguay and Uruguay.*—Following the passage of laws establishing the 8-hour day for workers in all or specified industries and obliging the observance of one day of rest in every seven, many countries have still further shortened the working week by adopting the Saturday half-day holiday as a part of their permanent labor policy. While such action may take the form of legislation, it frequently receives widespread recognition simply through its acceptance by the leading mercantile and industrial firms of the Republic.

In URUGUAY the Saturday half holiday became an integral feature of the labor policy of the country by action of Congress. A decree covering the subject was passed on October 13, 1931, and went into effect on November 7, 1931. Cases of failure to conform to the law were ordered to be reported immediately.

The decree provides that the weekly rest period for employees of commercial establishments shall be lengthened to at least 36 consecutive hours with a consequent reduction of the working week to 44 hours. Establishments exempted from compliance with the law of December 10, 1920, providing for the observance of Sunday as a day of rest, because of the nature of the needs which they meet, the technical character of their operations, or the fact that a cessation of their activities is considered prejudicial to the interest of the public or the industry itself, are likewise freed from the obligation of conforming to the present law. They shall, however, substitute the Sunday and half-day Saturday holiday by a rest period of a day and a half at some other time during the week.

Pharmacies and barber shops are not affected by the new ruling; they will continue to be regulated by the laws of July 2, 1931, and

November 7, 1929. Street venders come within the provisions of the law, although exception is made in the case of persons selling articles of food, newspapers and magazines, flowers, nonalcoholic beverages, lottery tickets, tobacco and cigarettes, objects sold at the Sunday fairs, or other articles sold by establishments which are exempted from the provisions of the law of 1920.

Laborers who are paid by the day will receive a full day's wages for each fraction of a day that they work when the other portion of the day falls within the weekly rest period.

A subsequent decree, issued by the Ministry of Industries on October 27, 1931, specifies that wool and hide exporters and warehouses storing agricultural products shall be exempt from the effects of the law.

The general adoption of the practice of observing a half-day holiday on Saturday in Asuncion is, on the other hand, largely the result of the initiative of the Society of Commercial Employees, which has been working actively in PARAGUAY for its realization. Several of the firms in the city have been observing this practice for some time, and their number has gradually grown as other business houses have seen the wisdom of the plan. Early in December the Society of Commercial Employees announced that 92 other companies had expressed their willingness to cooperate in the movement by closing on Saturday afternoons.

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## EDUCATION

*Educational courses and school enrollment.*—During January, CUBA joined the ranks of countries using the radio as a means of placing subjects of educational interest before the attention of the public. The first broadcast of the series of "educational hours," as the new programs being sponsored by the Department of Public Instruction are known, was made on January 19, 1932. At that time talks explaining the purpose of the series were given and several musical selections and readings presented. The preparation of the programs is in charge of the Sub Secretary of Public Instruction.

Believing education to be one of the most effective means for the rehabilitation of the criminal, the Department of Justice of EL SALVADOR has taken action to establish primary schools in the prisons throughout the Republic. According to the press it is the intention of the department to open 30 schools, a number sufficient to allow one school in each prison under the supervision of the department. Some of these schools have already begun to function.

More than 300 teachers from the rural schools of MEXICO attended the special course for rural teachers recently held in Mexico City by



the National University. The program provided for classes in cooperative organization, hygiene, economics, and other subjects designed to make the instructor more efficient in his work, and also included a series of lectures on national problems given by prominent teachers of the capital. The closing exercises were held on December 21, 1931, when certificates were presented those who had attended the course.

During the year 1932, the Department of Public Education of Mexico will maintain 16 cultural missions. While less than 10 years have elapsed since the successful termination of the work of the first cultural mission in March, 1924, so great has been the interest manifested in them by the communities visited that it has been found advisable not only to enlarge the radius of their action, but to extend their activities. The present year will see the organization of two new missions, one a permanent cultural mission to be opened in Actopan, Hidalgo, and the other a mission to visit each of the State capitals for the purpose of giving short courses for urban teachers. The 14 regular missions will continue to carry on the activities originally planned for them. Their work takes them into all parts of the Republic, but is chiefly centered in those communities farthest removed from the outside world. At each place a 28-day program is presented; subjects from the fields of education, hygiene, social relationships, and economics are taught, and the members of the community instructed in trades and other activities which will help to improve their living conditions.

Announcement was made during February that a summer session for foreign students will be held in the University of Guadalajara from June 29 to August 13, 1932 (for other summer schools of Spanish in the Americas, see the *BULLETIN* for February, 1932). This university, which is located in the city of the same name in western Mexico, offers a varied program of study under carefully selected professors and will afford students an unusual opportunity for spending a profitable vacation in the midst of typically Mexican surroundings.

Further student exchange between MEXICO and the UNITED STATES has recently been made possible by the establishment of a fund to finance fellowships in the University of Texas for students from the National University of Mexico, and in the latter institution for students from the University of Texas. The fund, which is known as the E. D. Farmer International Scholarship Fund, will ultimately amount to \$210,000.

According to statistics published by the Ministry of the Interior and Statistics, the total enrollment of all educational institutions in ECUADOR during the year 1930, was 119,668; of this number 113,583 pupils were in attendance in the primary schools, 2,532 in the secondary schools, 2,633 in the special schools, and 920 in the universities. At present there are 1,897 schools in the Republic; primary schools

total 1,864, secondary schools 16, special schools 13, and universities 4. The number of schools and the enrollment in them by Provinces are as follows:

*Number of schools by Provinces*

Provinces	Primary schools					Secondary schools			Special schools (Government)	Universities (Government)	Total			
	Government	Municipal	Private	Schools on Estates	Total	Government	Private	Total			Government	Municipal	Private	Total
Carchi.....	81	---	2	6	89	1	---	1	1	---	83	---	8	91
Imbabura.....	85	---	6	12	103	1	---	1	1	---	86	---	18	104
Pichincha.....	158	5	26	40	229	1	1	2	6	1	166	5	67	238
Leon.....	108	1	5	4	118	1	---	1	---	---	109	1	9	119
Tungurahua.....	119	9	17	2	147	1	---	1	---	---	120	9	19	148
Chimborazo.....	106	3	17	---	126	1	1	2	---	---	107	3	18	128
Bolivar.....	81	1	3	---	85	1	---	1	---	---	82	1	3	86
Canar.....	63	---	6	---	69	1	---	1	---	---	64	---	6	70
Azuay.....	139	16	36	---	191	1	---	1	1	1	142	16	36	194
Loja.....	111	3	8	2	124	1	---	1	---	1	113	3	10	126
El Oro.....	55	16	4	---	75	1	---	1	---	---	56	16	4	76
Guayas.....	138	12	50	3	203	1	---	1	3	1	143	12	53	208
Los Rios.....	52	7	3	---	62	1	---	1	---	---	53	7	3	63
Manabi.....	132	39	3	---	174	1	---	1	2	---	135	39	3	177
Esmeraldas.....	63	2	1	2	68	---	---	---	---	---	63	2	3	68
Archipelago.....	1	---	---	---	1	---	---	---	---	---	1	---	---	1
Total.....	1,492	114	187	71	1,864	14	2	16	13	4	1,523	114	260	1,897

*Enrollment by Provinces*

Provinces	Primary schools, including night schools and coeducational institutions				Total	Secondary schools	Special schools	Universities	Total
	Government	Municipal	Private	Schools on estates					
Carchi.....	5,098	---	345	180	5,623	56	60	---	5,739
Imbabura.....	5,633	---	1,136	329	7,098	64	---	---	7,162
Pichincha.....	9,769	709	5,443	746	16,667	526	1,530	552	19,275
Leon.....	7,329	37	728	95	8,189	101	---	---	8,290
Tungurahua.....	7,425	744	1,524	54	9,747	161	---	---	9,908
Chimborazo.....	6,907	275	2,066	---	9,248	252	---	---	9,500
Bolivar.....	4,649	30	544	---	5,223	93	---	---	5,316
Cañar.....	3,082	---	1,356	---	4,438	70	---	---	4,508
Azuay.....	7,416	583	3,429	---	11,428	147	59	141	11,775
Loja.....	4,968	59	1,482	76	6,585	115	---	20	6,720
El Oro.....	2,788	457	344	---	3,589	58	---	---	3,647
Guayas.....	7,764	1,879	4,555	128	14,326	752	893	207	16,178
Los Rios.....	2,779	468	408	---	3,655	55	---	---	3,710
Manabi.....	4,123	508	260	---	4,893	82	91	---	5,066
Esmeraldas.....	2,699	52	80	---	2,831	---	---	---	2,831
Archipelago.....	43	---	---	---	43	---	---	---	43
Totals.....	82,472	5,801	23,702	1,608	113,583	2,532	2,633	920	119,668

*Activities of educational organizations.*—The Fourth National Educational Conference was held in Rio de Janeiro, BRAZIL, from December 13 to 20, 1931, under the auspices of the Brazilian Association of Education and with the cooperation of the Federal Government. The meeting took on added significance because many of the delegates were empowered by their respective States to sign the Inter-Administration Convention for the Standardization of School Statistics.

As the result of a resolution issued December 11, 1931, by the President of the Provisional Government, the Minister of Education and Public Health was authorized to prepare a convention between the Federal Government on the one hand and the States, the Federal District, and the Territory of Acre on the other, for the coordination into a single system of the statistical activities of the General Bureau of Information, Statistics, and Publicity of the Ministry, as well as those of school boards, inspectors, superintendents, and others in charge of educational administration throughout the nation. These statistics are to be compiled and published in such a form as will give at stated intervals a consistent, trustworthy, up-to-date, and well-rounded picture of education in the Republic. The delegates with plenipotentiary powers met twice with the Minister of Education to discuss the convention, which was signed at the close of the conference.

At the regular sessions, papers dealing with the principal aims of education, the main topic of the gathering, and with other closely related subjects, were read and discussed. For the delegates a special course was given by professors from the *Escola de Aperfeiçoamento* of Bello Horizonte, visits were arranged to the National Museum, schools of different types, the D. Amelia Tuberculosis Preventorium, and other institutions of interest to the members, and concerts and receptions given in their honor. The Brazilian Association of Education arranged during the week daily showings of educational films, which proved of great interest to the delegates. A pedagogic exposition, installed in the National School of Fine Arts, showed exhibitions prepared by official bodies and individual institutions. Among the States represented were Pernambuco, Rio Grande do Sul, Minas Geraes, Ceara, Espirito Santo, and Rio Grande do Norte, while the institutions included schools, educational societies, publishing houses, and firms specializing in educational equipment.

The fifth conference, it was voted, will be held in Pernambuco.

The Society of Industrial Education was founded in Buenos Aires, Argentina, in 1900 and incorporated in 1903; the first school established under its auspices opened in 1901 with 72 pupils, who were given free training in mechanics and electricity. In the 30 years since its foundation, more than 25,000 students have attended its course, the number of schools has increased to eight, and its capital has steadily grown from little over 7,000 pesos to nearly a million and a quarter. The latest report (1929) of the society states that there were 2,573 students, all over 14 years of age, attending classes that year. The schools of drawing, industrial chemistry, building construction, electricity, and gasoline engines offer their courses at night; the others, of mechanics, drawing and applied arts for women, and radiotelegraphy, are held during the day. In the laboratories of the School of

Industrial Chemistry, analyses are made and industrial or scientific research is available for the public.

The growth of the society necessitated the erection of a third building to house its increasing activities. At the opening ceremonies, held on December 25, 1931, awards for the school year were distributed to honor students, and examples of the work accomplished in the various schools placed on exhibition. The new building itself bears testimony to the practicability of the education offered by the society, for many of the materials used were prepared in the shops and all the wiring was done by students.

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## PUBLIC HEALTH AND SOCIAL WELFARE

*Public hygiene.*—Activities for the promotion of public hygiene in Latin America cover a wide and varied field of action. In a cross-section view of such work are to be found campaigns for stamping out particular diseases and the destruction of animal pests, the organization of new sanitation services, the opening of dispensaries and clinics, and the formation of leagues and societies dedicated to the prophylaxis of disease.

During recent months much interest has been centered in health education. In Argentina measures were taken to prevent unauthorized persons from broadcasting health advice over the radio, and a beneficial exposition of hygiene, which attracted thousands, was opened in Buenos Aires. Panama completed plans for the instruction of a corps of visiting nurses, and Uruguay reported a far-reaching program for the dissemination of health information. In Venezuela the first of a series of health weeks was held.

On November 3, 1931, an order was issued by the General Postal and Telegraph Bureau of ARGENTINA prohibiting all broadcasts of lectures or advice relating to health, hygiene, or therapeutics which are not sponsored by the National Bureau of Hygiene, the Bureau of Public Welfare, or other similar organization of official character. Advertisements of medicinal products must be clearly indicated as such, and conform to the other provisions of the order.

Each year during the late spring or early summer, the Mothers' Club of Buenos Aires, an organization of public-spirited women who are devoting much time and effort to the task of educating and assisting parents in the proper care of the preschool child, sponsors a campaign for the improvement of health conditions throughout the Republic. Plans for 1931 provided that the campaign for that year should take the form of an exposition by which the attention of the public could be called to the means which science and progress place at its disposal to combat diseases having their origin in the failure or deficiency of general hygiene.

The exposition, which was formally opened on December 1, 1931, was held in a large 4-story building where ample space was provided for the many exhibits and the lectures, motion pictures, and theatrical attractions forming part of the program.

The first floor of the building was given over to exhibits on child hygiene, feeding, and care. On this floor there was a large stand showing the work of the Mothers' Club, exhibits of the Bureau of Public Welfare depicting a fully equipped maternity hospital and a model dispensary for children, and a stand of the Department of Agriculture. The National Bureau of Hygiene also had a child welfare section which contained among other things interesting graphs relative to proper nutrition for children. On the second floor a dental clinic was open certain hours each day. Special exhibits, including numerous charts and photographs of the different phases of the sanitation campaign and the services maintained by the National Council of Education for the prophylaxis of oral diseases, stands of the Red and White Cross, the Temperance League, and many private firms engaged in the preparation of articles of personal hygiene, and an interesting section devoted to the work of the Juvenile Recreation Association, which is providing wholesome entertainment for approximately 1,400 children of the city through its nine libraries and recreation room, were also located on this floor. The third floor contained displays of modern furniture, appliances to assist the housewife in cleaning the home, and exhibits by the municipal government. These last included a model playground arranged by the Park and Physical Education Commission for the use of the children visiting the exposition. The top floor was used for the purpose of general assemblage and the dances which were held each evening.

An attractive series of programs, among which were band concerts, motion pictures, and interpretative songs and dances, was presented during the exposition. Classes were also held where children received instruction in carpentry, drawing, painting, sewing, and music in accordance with methods used in similar instruction at the public playgrounds.

The organization in PANAMA of a corps of visiting nurses to give practical home instruction in hygiene was assured during December by the arrival on the Isthmus of a graduate nurse recently engaged to instruct local nurses for that work. The young woman chosen for the position has had an excellent training and background for her new duties, having traveled extensively in Argentina, Chile, and Peru, and acted as a nursing instructor and supervisor in Brazil. A corps of between 15 and 20 nurses has been assigned to this phase of health activities by the Government authorities, and when they have completed the instruction course they will spend their whole time visiting homes throughout the city for the purpose of teaching proper sanita-

tion, ventilation, and disease prevention, instructing mothers in the care of their children, and supervising the midwife service.

The Office of Health Education of the National Council of Hygiene of URUGUAY reports the use of motion pictures, radio broadcasts, lectures, posters, press items, and numerous other forms of printed material in its campaign to disseminate health information. Motion-picture films are gladly loaned for exhibition in clubs, schools, and labor-union meetings, posters and printed matter distributed, and lectures given. For some time the office has been utilizing radio programs as an effective means of reaching large numbers of people. Both official and private broadcasting stations throughout the country have been asked to assist by placing their facilities at the disposal of the office and the majority have graciously acceded to the request. Newspapers also have lent their cooperation in the furtherance of the campaign. Two series of lectures by eminent physicians of the Republic were recently transmitted by the official radio service and beginning in November a course in public hygiene was broadcast every Wednesday from the assembly hall of the National Council of Hygiene. The broadcasting station of the Bureau of Agronomy and several privately owned radio stations also transmit regular broadcasts on rules of hygiene. All printed information and the use of the motion-picture films are absolutely free.

The first of a series of health weeks which is being held in Caracas, VENEZUELA, under the auspices of a group of prominent physicians, surgeons, and specialists of the city, was opened with a radio address on December 5, 1931. By this method it is hoped to arouse among the mass of the population an appreciation of the value of preventive medicine. The giving of lectures and radio addresses, distribution of printed matter, publication of articles in the newspapers, and showing of health films all have a place in the program. The first week was devoted to cancer; later, the prophylaxis of tuberculosis, syphilis, alcoholism, and diseases caused by intestinal parasites will be considered.

Health education programs, however, are not the only means being taken by the different Latin American Government and private organizations throughout the various countries for promoting hygiene. A scientific mission has been formed to assume control of the sanitation and the water supply of several important Haitian cities, changes have been made in the health service of Mexico, new clinics and medical services opened or planned in Costa Rica, Haiti, and Mexico, and the organization of a mental hygiene association effected in Chile.

On October 1, 1931, in conformity with the provisions of the accord signed by representatives of the Government of HAITI and of the United States on August 5, 1931, a scientific mission was organized

and assumed control of sanitation in the cities of Port au Prince, Petionville, and Cap Haitien and the area within a radius of 2 miles of the cities proper. The mission also has charge of the supervision of the chlorination of the water supply of the cities of Port au Prince and Petionville.

Water supplied to the city of Port au Prince is collected from numerous springs in five different areas. All springs have been protected against pollution from surface drainage by concrete captations, and from these the water is conducted by means of iron pipes to the Turgeau, Bourdon, and Leclerc reservoirs where chlorinators are installed. Petionville has a separate water system also equipped with a chlorinator. Samples of water from each of the sources are tested daily, and daily examinations are likewise made of selected samples of milk from the dairy farm at Damien and of the ice from the local ice plant.

Attached to the mission are three medical officers of the United States Navy, one of whom is designated as director, three chief pharmacists, and over 600 other employees.

By virtue of an order issued by the President, the Bureau of Public Health of MEXICO was authorized to empower the National Institute of Hygiene to begin the production of serums and vaccines on a commercial basis commencing with the first of the year 1932. Heretofore the work of the institute has been chiefly experimental in character. The new phase of activity, largely made possible through the excellent nature of the work done by the institute in the past and its splendid equipment, will probably necessitate the reorganization of its services to provide for the creation of a special section which will devote its full time to the preparation of the biological products to be placed on sale. The chief of the bureau is interested that the institute shall also engage in chemical and bacteriological analyses, and expects that both this service and the serums and vaccines can be offered at prices which will compare favorably with those charged by private firms.

The creation of a separate section in the Bureau of Public Health to unify the services in charge of the prophylaxis of communicable diseases was authorized early in January by Dr. Rafael Silva, chief of the bureau. The work of the new section, whose staff will be formed by persons already employed in the bureau, will be concerned primarily with the diagnosis of disease and measures for immunization against communicable diseases. All serums and vaccines used by the section will be prepared by the National Institute of Hygiene.

A regulation was issued by the President of COSTA RICA on November 7, 1931, authorizing the laboratory of the Public Health Service to make examinations free in the case of needy patients sent by public-health physicians, hospitals, the central and provincial public welfare clinics, and the service of venereal prophylaxis. Inmates of the Orphan

Home, the Durán Sanatorium, the Mercedes Leprosarium, children's clinics, and other social-welfare institutions are also included under this provision. Any patient, regardless of his ability to pay, who has been sent by a public-health physician in connection with the control of communicable diseases will also receive the service of the laboratory free, nor shall a charge be made for treatments given patients suffering from hookworm.

Prior to the establishment of the dental hygiene service in the schools of Port au Prince by the Department of Dental Surgery of the Medical School of HAITI, no attempt had ever been made to instruct the children in the importance of oral hygiene. Reports had often been submitted by members of the school medical corps stressing the need for such a service, but no definite action had resulted. During the period from October, 1929, to July, 1931, however, following the organization of the new service, practically all the children attending school in the city were examined and approximately 2,900 given free treatment. The examination revealed that of the 8,459 children undergoing observation, 6,689 were ignorant of the use of the toothbrush and the majority had teeth which needed attention.

Seventy-eight of the 82 schools in Port au Prince were visited by the two dentists assigned to this task. Pupils of private as well as public schools received careful examination, the only difference being that in the case of the pupils attending private schools the work of the dentists was limited to making recommendations regarding the dental work necessary. More than 2,000 families have as a result received detailed reports on the condition of their children's teeth. Students attending the public schools, on the other hand, were given the opportunity of receiving free treatment either at the dispensary of the medical school or the public health center.

In view of the encouraging results obtained by the service during the two years it has been in operation in Port au Prince, the Department of Dental Surgery decided that if it were at all advisable it would recommend extension to the rural schools of the Republic. During June, 1931, therefore, a commission was sent to visit a number of schools located on the outskirts of the capital to secure a basis for comparing the need for dental hygiene in the rural districts with that in the city, to determine the advisability of establishing a traveling dental clinic, and to give dental students training which would permit their later being enlisted to serve in such missions. The majority of the schools visited were more than 20 kilometers (kilometer equals 0.62 mile) from Port au Prince, and many were in communities where there was no local dentist.

The investigation proved that the need for dental hygiene and treatment among the children of the rural schools was just as urgent as that in the city, and the Department of Dentistry thereupon recommended





SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE, SANTIAGO, CHILE

This school for the instruction of social workers is under government auspices.

the establishment of rural dental service. According to the plan which has been formulated, the members of the mission will give such treatment as may be necessary to relieve the patient of pain, make urgent extractions, fill cavities, and teach rules of dental hygiene. These services will be commenced as soon as necessary funds are available.

Other activities for the furtherance of public health and hygiene in MEXICO include the establishment by the Bureau of Public Welfare of four additional dispensaries in Mexico City. The bureau already maintains eight dispensaries in the capital, but so great was the number of persons applying for treatment during the past year that it was deemed imperative to open still others. Each dispensary will be fully equipped to provide for minor surgical operations. At the time of the original announcement of the creation of these new health centers, no specific date had been set for their opening.

The first general session of the Mental Hygiene Association of CHILE, formed some months ago for the purpose of making a point of contact for the many Chilean groups and individuals engaged in endeavoring to assist in the mental adaptation of individuals to the environment in which they work and live, took place under the chairmanship of Dr. Hugo Lea-Plaza in Santiago on December 19, 1931. At a previous meeting the possibility of coordinating work covering such a wide range of subjects as would necessarily concern an organization of this nature was discussed and a preliminary declaration of principles formulated. These last were read and explained in the session of December 19, and following a brief historical review of the activities of similar foreign organizations a provisional executive committee entrusted with studying the definite organization of the association, drafting by-laws and regulations, and planning a program of activities, was appointed.

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## FEMINISM

At the General Disarmament Conference which opened in Geneva on February 2, 1932, two of the delegates from American nations were women—Miss Mary E. Woolley, president of Mount Holyoke College, from the UNITED STATES, and Dr. Paulina Luisi, noted physician and feminist, a former president of the National Council of Women, assistant delegate from URUGUAY.

In PANAMA the preliminary organization of a feminist party was effected on December 17, 1931, in Panama City. The party was organized especially to prepare the women of the Republic for the intelligent exercise of the suffrage when it shall have been granted.

Provisional officers were selected as follows: Señorita Otilia Arosemena, president, Señorita Clara González, vice president, Señora Corina de Cornick, secretary, and Señora Carolina Pérez de Morales, treasurer.

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## NECROLOGY

During the month of December 1931, the American republics lost four eminent leaders. On December 9 the only surviving member of the cabinet of the Provisional Government of 1889 of BRAZIL, Dr. Demetrio Nunes Ribeiro, died at the age of 77 in Rio de Janeiro. Dr. Nunes Ribeiro served with distinction as first Secretary of Agriculture of the Republic, and after his resignation from the cabinet was elected deputy from Rio Grande do Sul to the Constitutional Congress. In later life he exerted great influence as editor of *Federação* of Porto Alegre, and as an engineer did much to promote the material progress of his nation. On the same day Señor Salvador Jurado died in PANAMA CITY. As Governor of the Province of Chiriquí, Deputy to the National Assembly, and Secretary of the Interior and of Justice, Señor Jurado rendered important services to his country.

The Minister of Public Instruction of ECUADOR, Dr. Francisco Pérez Borja, died suddenly in Quito on December 19 at the age of 50. After graduating from the law school of the Central University in 1906, Dr. Pérez Borja entered public life; among the positions that he held were those of President of the Supreme Court of Quito, President of the National Supreme Court, Councilor in the Ministry of the Interior, Deputy for Pichincha to the National Congress, and Minister of Public Instruction. In addition to these duties, Dr. Pérez Borja was professor of penal law in the Central University for 14 years, president of the International Society of Penal Law, and contributor of many important studies on law and jurisprudence to journals of law.

By the death of Dr. José Figueroa Alcorta, who died on December 27 at the age of 71, ARGENTINA lost one of her most distinguished statesmen and jurists. Dr. Figueroa Alcorta had the privilege of holding three of the highest constitutional positions in his nation—President of the Republic, the Senate, and the Supreme Court. As President of the nation, he served nearly five years of the unexpired term of President Manuel Quintana, who died on March 11, 1906; among the outstanding achievements of his administration was the reorganization of public education.

# SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

REPORTS RECEIVED TO FEBRUARY 16, 1932

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Argentina, Dec. 15 to 28, 1931.	1931 Dec. 31	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Argentina, Dec. 29, 1931, to Jan. 11, 1932.	1932 Jan. 15	Do.
BOLIVIA		
Patino University Foundation selects graduates to continue their studies abroad.	Jan. 14	Legation, La Paz.
BRAZIL		
Increase in Brazilian postage rates.....	1931 Dec. 22	Julian L. Pinkerton, consul at Rio de Janeiro.
COLOMBIA		
Transmitting volumes V and VII of Memoria of Minister of Industries for 1931.	1932 Jan. 22	Legation, Bogota.
Completion of Barranquilla-Puerto Colombia highway.....	Feb. 2	Erie W. Magnuson, consul at Barranquilla.
COSTA RICA		
Arrival of a party to complete reconnaissance work on the Costa Rican section of the Inter-American Highway.	Jan. 8	Legation, San Jose.
HAITI		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Haiti, September, 1931.	1931 Oct. 10	Legation, Port au Prince.
PERU		
Preliminary returns of census undertaken Nov. 13, 1931, for Provinces of Lima and Callao.	1932 Jan. 18	Embassy, Lima.
Law relating to appointment of members of city councils.....	Jan. 21	Do.
VENEZUELA		
Quarantine regulations.....	Jan. 9	Legation, Caracas.

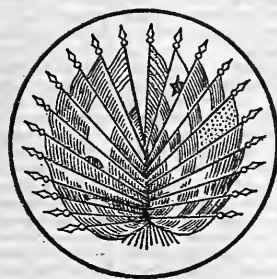


ARGENTINA BOLIVIA BRAZIL CHILE COLOMBIA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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PAN AMERICAN DAY  
APRIL 14

APRIL

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

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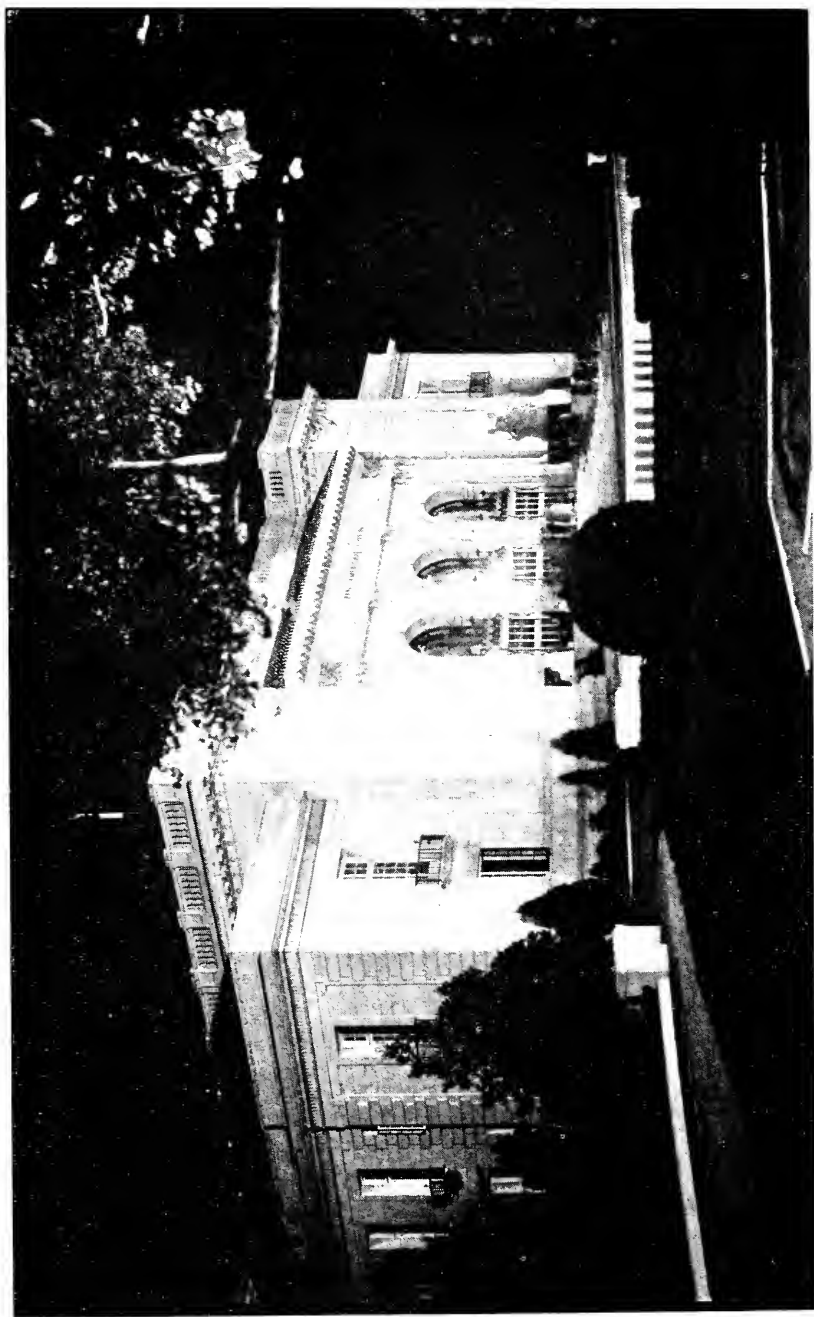
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Venezuela.....	Señor Dr. PEDRO MANUEL ARCÁYA, 1628 Twenty-first Street, Washington, D. C.

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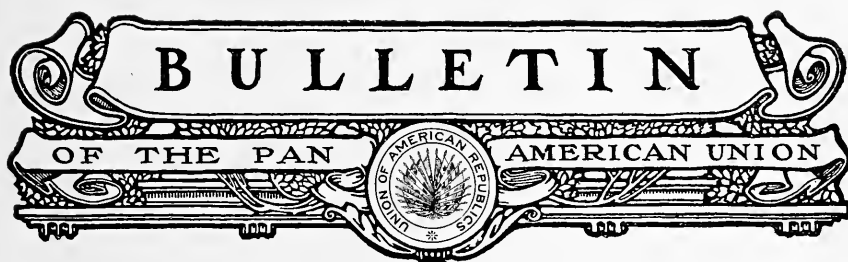
*(The contents of previous issues of the BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION can be found in the Reader's Guide in your library.)*



THE PAN AMERICAN UNION AT NIGHT

The illuminated facade of the Pan American Union, the international organization created and maintained by the 21 American Republics, whose aim is to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and closer understanding between the Republics of the American Continent.





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VOL. LXVI

APRIL, 1932

No. 4

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## FOREWORD

By L. S. ROWE, Ph. D. LL. D.

*Director General, Pan American Union*

THE celebration of Pan American Day in 1932 will in a very real sense be a special celebration by the younger generation. Throughout the continent public and private schools and universities have arranged exercises designed to impress upon the student body the larger significance of this continental event. Although but one year has passed since the first designation of Pan American Day by the 21 Republics of the Western Hemisphere, it has already become the outward symbol and expression of the essential unity of purpose and ideals of the nations of America.

The exercises, therefore, which are to be held on April 14 in educational institutions are indications of a growing spirit of solidarity which is manifesting itself to an increasing extent both at the Pan American Conferences and in the activities of the Pan American Union.

Official ceremonies in the capitals of the American Republics and municipal observances, not only in the large centers of population but in the most remote localities throughout the continent, will mark the day in 1932 as in 1931.

In view of the fact that the bicentennial of the birth of George Washington is being celebrated this year, the representatives of the Republics of Latin America, members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, have decided to make a pilgrimage to Mount Vernon on that day and at the tomb of Washington to read the messages from their respective Presidents. This will undoubtedly constitute one of the most impressive ceremonies incident to the celebration of Pan American Day. It is difficult to imagine a finer tribute to the memory of George Washington.

# THE EVOLUTION OF PAN AMERICANISM

By DR. LUIS ANDERSON <sup>1</sup>

*Jurist, San José, Costa Rica*

GREAT as have been the changes which in the course of time have taken place in the international field, none equals in importance and in fruitful results of many kinds the advent of the sovereign American States into the family of nations. A constellation of new republics was formed by vigorous and progressive groups of people imbued with the spirit of liberty and living in a vast continent, whose fabulous riches and splendid possibilities invited unremitting efforts for common improvement. On this continent, removed from the rest of the world by the mighty oceans surrounding its shores, these States came into being after their glorious struggle for independence, to destroy the former European balance of power and to change fundamentally the established order of things. Thus they marked a new orientation in political and international relations and offered to the world a new and highly fertile field where the noblest ideals of justice and liberty might flourish.

In the struggle of the Spanish colonies against the mother country for independence and incorporation into the international concert as free and sovereign States, each competed with the other in heroic exertions and when, victory theirs, the liberty attained at the cost of so many sacrifices was threatened by attacks from the European dynasties leagued in the Holy Alliance, the young Republics hastened as one to defend their common patrimony of freedom. Thus from the necessity of self-preservation and self-defense against a general danger, from that proximity to one another productive of ties of affection, and from their common democratic form of government—a form essentially different from the absolutism which prevailed in other continents—there arose early in the public consciousness of the American States a strong and sympathetic attraction, which culminated in a sentiment of cooperation and solidarity in everything relating to the consolidation and maintenance of the new nations, as well as to their free development and civic and economic progress.

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<sup>1</sup> Doctor Anderson has rendered many distinguished services to his country, both at home and abroad. He has served as Minister of Foreign Relations, of Public Instruction, and of Justice; and he has represented his nation on diplomatic missions in the United States, Mexico, El Salvador, and Nicaragua; he was a delegate of Costa Rica to the Third Pan American Scientific Congress, the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference, a charter member of the American Institute of International Law, and a member of the International Commission of Jurists, Rio de Janeiro, 1927.

The peoples of all America, aware of their common destinies and promising each other assistance, were of one mind in the dawn of liberty; and those of Latin American origin found in the Anglo-American Republic, already strong and well organized when they gained their independence, not only indispensable moral support against latent external dangers but also a model of free institutions which they copied and tried to follow with the faith and the enthusiasm with which the Indo-Latin race welcomes the good, the just, the noble, and the generous.

Far from lessening with the passage of time, the tendency toward reciprocal protection and accord that seems to have been a corollary of political emancipation becomes more confirmed every day; it is nourished by the principles which attract peoples intimately leagued not by political alliances nor by diplomatic understandings, but by the firmest and most lasting ties of that community of interest arising from proximity, from a like historical background, and from similar institutions.

These bonds form the international American idea which we call "Pan Americanism," to which all the Republics of the continent gladly give their support. In this day and age the purpose of Pan Americanism is not, as is readily understandable, defense against external dangers, for the States of this hemisphere have an indisputable place in the international family, and each of them is fully capable of watching over its own destinies and maintaining its own rights as a sovereign nation. The Pan American ideal nowadays is that of cooperation, reciprocal understanding, and mutual assistance in the promotion of the civic and material welfare of all the American Republics and of each one in particular, by means of the preservation of the benefits of liberty, of justice, and of independent government, in order to attain the fullest development of all their activities. This ideal was expounded as a profession of faith, with the added effect of a gospel of hope, by that great statesman, James G. Blaine, Secretary of State of the United States, when he greeted the representatives of the three Americas assembled in Washington at the First International Conference of American States:

. . . we can not be expected to forget that our common fate has made us inhabitants of the two continents which, at the close of four centuries, are still regarded beyond the seas as the New World. Like situations beget like sympathies and impose like duties. We meet in firm belief that the nations of America ought to be and can be more helpful, each to the other, than they now are, and that each will find advantage and profit from an enlarged intercourse with the others.

We believe that we should be drawn together more closely by the highways of the sea, and that at no distant day the railway systems of the north and south will meet upon the isthmus and connect by land routes the political and commercial capitals of all America.

We believe that hearty co-operation, based on hearty confidence, will save all American States from the burdens and evils which have long and cruelly afflicted the older nations of the world.

We believe that a spirit of justice, of common and equal interest between the American States, will leave no room for an artificial balance of power like unto that which has led to wars abroad and drenched Europe in blood.

We believe that friendship, avowed with candor and maintained with good faith, will remove from American States the necessity of guarding boundary lines between themselves with fortifications and military force.

We believe that standing armies, beyond those which are needful for public order and the safety of internal administration, should be unknown on both American continents.

We believe that friendship and not force, the spirit of just law and not the violence of the mob, should be the recognized rule of administration between American nations and in American nations. . . .

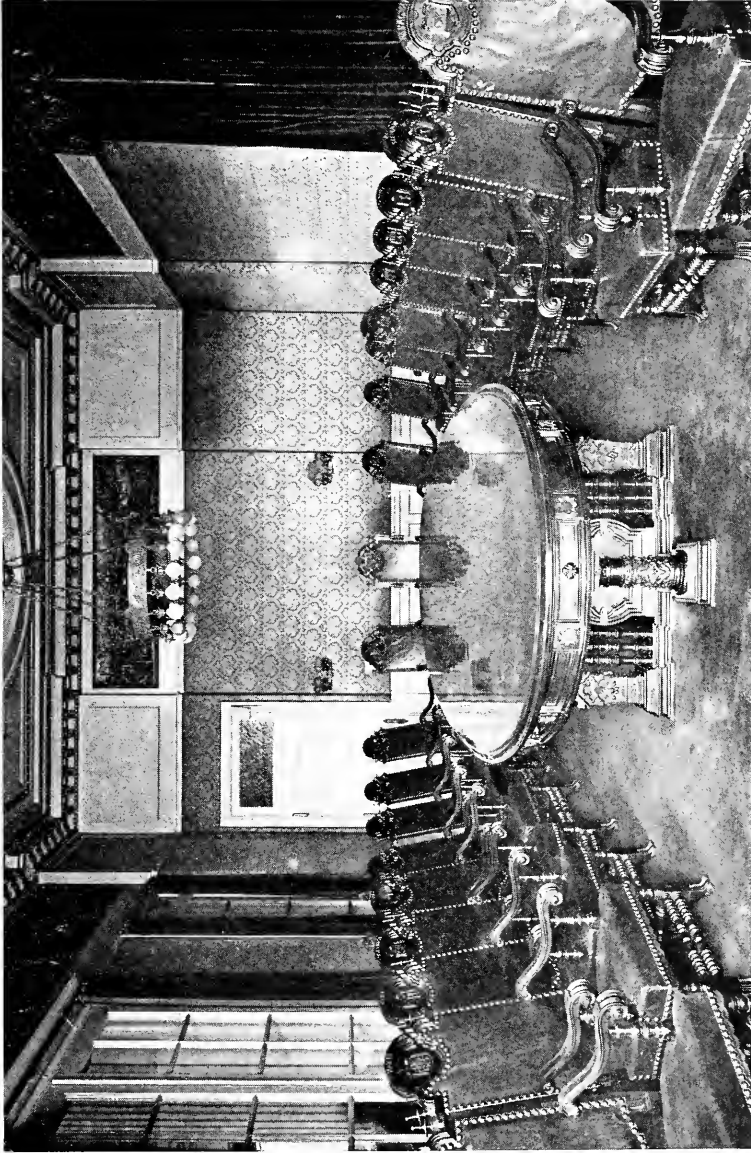
Ever since 1889, the year in which the important meeting to which I have just referred took place, the Pan American idea of cooperation and good understanding between the Republics has become more and more firmly rooted in public consciousness throughout the continent, as has been shown in the successive Conferences of American States in Mexico City, Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires, Santiago, and Habana. It was well, however, that the concept of Pan Americanism should be defined in its strictest sense, and at the Second Pan American Scientific Congress, which met in Washington in 1915, the idea was expressed clearly and eloquently by the Hon. Robert Lansing, then Secretary of State, who, speaking with the authority of his high office, enhanced by the solemnity of the occasion, said:

Nearly a century has passed since President Monroe proclaimed to the world his famous doctrine as the national policy of the United States. . . .

During this later time, when the American nations have come into a realization of their nationality and are fully conscious of the responsibilities and privileges which are theirs as sovereign and independent States, there has grown up a feeling that the Republics of this hemisphere constitute a group separate and apart from the other nations of the world, a group which is united by common ideals and common aspirations. I believe that this feeling is general throughout North and South America, and that year by year it has increased until it has become a potent influence over our political and commercial intercourse. It is the same feeling which, founded on sympathy and mutual interest, exists among the members of a family. It is the tie which draws together the 21 Republics and makes of them the American family of nations.

This feeling, vague at first, has become today a definite and certain force. We term it the "Pan American spirit," from which springs the international policy of Pan Americanism. . . . It is a policy which this Government has unhesitatingly adopted and which [it] will do all in its power to foster and promote.

When we attempt to analyze Pan Americanism we find that the essential qualities are those of the family—sympathy, helpfulness and a sincere desire to see another grow in prosperity, absence of covetousness of another's possessions, absence of jealousy of another's prominence, and, above all, absence of that spirit of intrigue which menaces the domestic peace of a neighbor. Such are the



THE GOVERNING BOARD ROOM OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

Here the Governing Board, composed of the representatives of the nations of Latin America and the Secretary of State of the United States, meets at regular intervals to consider subjects related to the functions of the organization and the interests of the republics, members of the Pan American Union.

qualities of the family tie among individuals, and such should be, and I believe are, the qualities which compose the tie which unites the American family of nations. . . .

And the President of Chile, on opening the Fifth International Conference of American States, which convened in Santiago in 1923, said:

Pan Americanism goes farther than the ideal: it is an effective dynamic force born of the unavoidable power of geographical, historical and political causes, of perfectly real factors which call for a common action. It is not in vain that nature gathered a considerable group of strong and vigorous races in an enormous Continent, separated from the whole Universe by two vast oceans which enclose and bathe them from one pole to the other in all its immense extension.

Separated from the rest of the world they feel themselves spontaneously impelled to a union which shall determine the unity of the continent and of the wide seas surrounding them, giving birth in this way to aspirations, interests and ideals of a common nature between peoples linked together by the marvelous energy of their natural elements.

Here we have in the words of two statesmen, one from North and the other from South America, an expression of the evolution of Pan Americanism. These ideas are undoubtedly shared and professed by the statesmen and by the thinkers in all 21 Republics. Intellectual and moral cooperation in every department of life, approximation and good understanding—these are the goals of the Pan American ideal. Its various expressions—the Pan American Union, the scientific, commercial, and financial conferences, the various congresses and other organisms—form an international consortium which embraces the best and the most important activities of the 21 American Republics in the fields of politics, culture, and economics, coordinating these activities without coercion in such a manner as to constitute a great cohesive force. The day is not far distant, in my opinion, when the Pan American Union will be transformed by the will of the Republics members of the Union into a *Permanent Council of International Conciliation*, to which all differences arising between American nations will be submitted for settlement. When this occurs, Pan Americanism will have attained the crowning glory of Bolívar's dream, the formation of a Society of American Nations "that should act as a council in great conflicts, to be appealed to in case of common danger, and be a faithful interpreter of public treaties, when difficulties should arise, and conciliate, in short, all our differences." Such a society, with all American Governments permanently represented therein on a basis of parity and with equal voice and vote, will be an alliance more democratic, more expeditious in action, and even greater in moral strength than that established by the Treaty of Versailles.

## THE LANDS OF BOLÍVAR AND PÉTION EXPRESS THEIR FRIENDSHIP

THE presentation of the letters of credence of His Excellency Dr. Francisco Gerardo Yanes as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States of Venezuela to the Republic of Haiti was the occasion of a brilliant ceremony at the presidential palace in Port au Prince. A diplomat and a man of letters, Doctor Yanes has rendered distinguished services to his Government during his notable career. His ability, well known in the Americas, will no doubt be an important factor in strengthening the bonds of cordiality and friendship which for more than a century have closely united Haiti and Venezuela.

It will be recalled that late in December, 1815, Bolívar arrived at the Haitian port of Les Cayes from the island of Jamaica, where he had been in exile since the defeat of the insurrectionists at the hands of Morillo. Alexandre Pétion, then President of Haiti, welcomed and befriended the Liberator and treated in a most hospitable manner the refugees who had succeeded in escaping from Cartagena. Despite the fact that the newly born Republic of Haiti was at the time in constant fear of an attack by the French and ran the risk of reprisals from the Spaniards, who at that time were in possession of that part of the island which is to-day the Dominican Republic, Pétion readily agreed to contribute secretly the arms, food, and ammunition which Bolívar sought for an expedition to South America. His only condition was that Bolívar should free the slaves in the Spanish Provinces which he might liberate. Faithful to his word, Bolívar freed his own 1,500 slaves and proclaimed the emancipation of all slaves in his native land. "Henceforward," he said, "in Venezuela, there will be only one class of men: all will be citizens." Defeated in his first attempt, however, Bolívar was forced to return to Haiti, where Pétion once more afforded him substantial aid and enabled him to return to the continent, this time to win the independence of five countries.

Received on February 5, 1932, with the honors prescribed by the protocol for such an occasion, Doctor Yanes spoke as follows on presenting his letters to President Sténio Vincent:

MR. PRESIDENT:

One could represent this hospitable land by a geographic symbol: The Gulf of La Gonâve, whose two open arms extend toward the sea in welcome to the traveler.

Miranda, who had already won his spurs in the republican crusade, stopped at Jacmel as he was returning to his fatherland. Dessalines and Magloire Ambroise



STATUE OF ALEXANDRE PÉTION, CARACAS, VENEZUELA

Monument to Alexandre Pétion, Haitian patriot and president, which was erected in Caracas in recognition of his services to Bolívar in Venezuela's struggle for independence.



received him with honors. Haiti gave him its youth to be offered as a sacrifice on the sacred altar.

Later, here in Port au Prince, Pétion received the Liberator, and at the risk of grave reprisals armed the expedition that set out from Les Cayes, thus placing in the latter's hands the means with which to free the mainland. When pressed by Bolívar to name his compensation, your great President, always generous, always Haitian, requested still more Liberty! Never did the Liberator give his promise to accomplish a more agreeable task than that of emancipating brothers who proved worthy of their rights.

One hundred years afterward, when Venezuelan historians had presented as a "striking example of the ingratitude of nations" the fact that Venezuela had failed to render public homage to the memory of Alexandre Pétion, a modest and patriotic man assumed the reins of government in my country and determined not only to remedy economic evils and save the country from bankruptcy but also to discharge the moral obligations contracted by the founders of our Republic. It was then that the monument to Alexandre Pétion was erected in one of the most beautiful parks of the Venezuelan capital. Through a happy coincidence I was privileged to speak at the solemn ceremony of its unveiling and, standing before the statue of the Haitian patriot and addressing myself to the President of Venezuela, General Juan Vicente Gómez, I said, "You have answered the call of history!"

Naturally, Mr. President, my confidence in the success of this mission of friendship which to-day brings me to the Republic of Haiti, is thoroughly justified because, besides counting on Your Excellency's kind assistance in the fulfillment of my duties, I come inspired by the sentiments of the President of my country who, as a true Venezuelan, loves and admires this heroic nation.

Permit me, Mr. President, upon placing in your hands the letters which accredit me Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary before the Republic of Haiti, to transmit to you in the name of my country the wishes of the President of the Republic, General Juan Vicente Gómez, for the welfare of the Haitian people and the personal happiness of Your Excellency and to add to them my own good wishes for Haiti and its illustrious President.

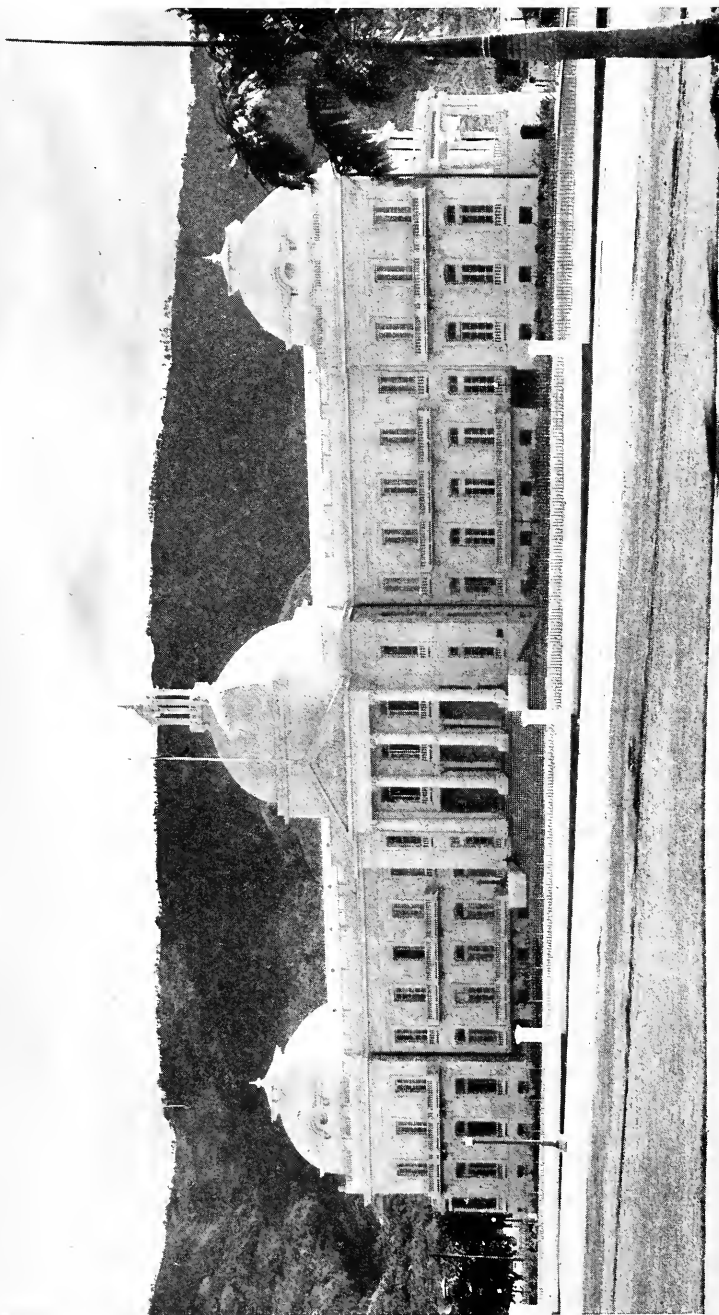
To this eloquent address the President responded in the following terms:

MR. MINISTER:

This ceremony in which you hand me the letters accrediting you Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States of Venezuela to Port au Prince will constitute one of the happiest memories of my presidency.

I am moved not solely by the historical sentiment that brings my country the honor of your mission. I have a special pleasure in the fact that the eminent Chief Magistrate now guiding the destinies of Venezuela was the first to recall the debt of honor contracted by Bolívar with Alexandre Pétion, and to have erected in one of the most beautiful squares of Caracas a monument to the great Haitian patriot. Furthermore, words can but feebly express our appreciation of a Plenipotentiary distinguished by his wide culture, his noteworthy career and his great heart, and who attributes to simple coincidence, on the day when the statue of Pétion was unveiled, the words by which he made amends for the passing ingratitude which is so often the work of circumstances rather than that of men.

The name of General Juan Vicente Gómez and yours, Mr. Minister, will be forever graven on Haitian hearts.



Courtesy of the Legation of Haiti in the United States

#### THE PRESIDENTIAL PALACE, PORT AU PRINCE, HAITI

This palace is one of the fine governmental buildings erected in the capital in recent years. It adjoins the spacious Champs de Mars and the near-by hills form a picturesque background.

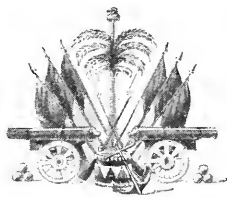
You have imagined that you saw in the Gulf of La Gonâve and its two arms outstretched toward the sea to receive the voyager the symbol of the hospitality of our land. But to receive a Venezuelan plenipotentiary, the Haitian people has something more than a mere geographic configuration. It has arms, heart and soul to give you the most cordial of welcomes and to assure you, Mr. Minister, that all the extent of our territory is your home, as it was long ago that of Miranda, the first comer—who was given a brotherly welcome by Dessalines—of Bolívar, Mariño, Bermúdez, Piar, Palacios, McGregor, Aury, and Brion—all your great chiefs and all your refugees who did my country the great honor of asking it for asylum, for assistance, for consolation.

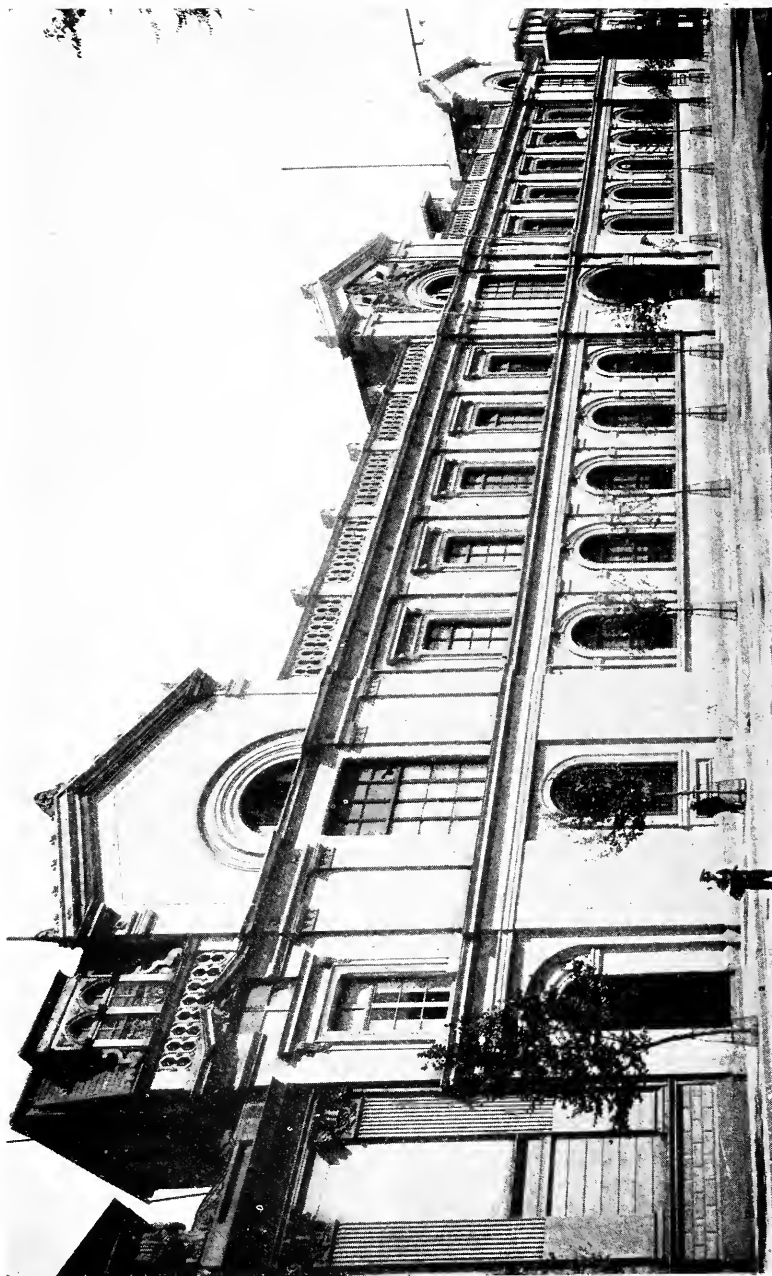
You have alluded to the danger of grave reprisals to which we were exposed. Certainly, it is true that at that time our independence was not firmly established. We were still on the alert, with a musket in one hand and a torch in the other; the rage of our former mother country still rumbled, the Spanish monarchy was still powerful. But to the men of those times what was one danger more or less? The gesture of solidarity was made, for the liberation from European tutelage and for the abolition of slavery on the mainland, and our two nations thus found themselves in the forefront of emancipation in Latin America and in the first rank of the States which abolished traffic in human beings, thus giving us a just claim to dignity, to morality, and to intelligence.

These are the powerful bonds between the Republic of Venezuela and the Republic of Haiti, and I ardently desire that the legation inaugurated by Your Excellency shall remain the permanent symbol of the friendship between our two peoples.

As for yourself, Mr. Minister, you have for the accomplishment of your mission not only my good wishes and the whole-hearted cooperation of my Government, but also the sympathy, esteem, and affection of the entire Haitian nation.

I beg you to transmit to General Juan Vicente Gómez the cordial good wishes which I extend for his personal happiness, for the complete success of his undertakings, and for the prosperity of his noble country.





THE UNIVERSITY OF CHILE, SANTIAGO

The central building of the university, situated on the Alameda, the principal thoroughfare of the city. Various departments are scattered throughout Santiago.

# SOUTH AMERICAN COURTESY

By STEPHEN P. DUGGAN, PH. D., LL. D.

*Director, Institute of International Education*

SO much is written about ill will existing in South America toward the United States that I am prompted to say a word about the courtesy that I personally experienced everywhere in a recent visit to most of the South American countries. There can be no question that an unfriendly feeling does exist among certain classes, but even among them there is a differentiation between the United States and the individual American. I had long discussions with some severe critics of our country but always in the best of spirits and frequently while enjoying the most cordial hospitality in private homes.

The South American is not as exclusive as the Frenchman when it comes to inviting foreigners into his home circle, but it is an evidence of real confidence and friendship when he does. I was fortunate enough to have this happen to me very often, and it was a delightful experience. Interested as I am in international affairs, it was a real joy to enter the homes of intellectual people who were thoroughly informed about the events of the day throughout the world and could discuss most intelligently their background and probable outcome. But it was not merely in the field of foreign affairs but of literature, art, music, and the life of the spirit generally that these discussions took place. I believe that the home circle has a bigger place in the life of the South American than with us, and conversation is not only not a lost art, but figures largely in social circles.

But it was not only in the homes of the cultured that I experienced the courtesy which seems to me so attractive a characteristic of the South American, but among practically all classes. In some of the universities I was fortunate enough to have round-table conferences with groups of leading students. Some of them were very bitter in their criticism of the foreign policy of the United States, but that fact in no way destroyed the delightful spirit that animated the gatherings. Perhaps that spirit was to a slight extent due to my desire to engage in cooperative thinking with the students. I mean when we discussed a problem, whether it was a problem of internal university administration or of foreign affairs, I tried to see whether we could not together analyze it into its elements and then construct a solution, instead of the students taking the offensive and I the defensive in the discussion. Certainly at the end of every one of such

meetings the cordial attitude of the students was very gratifying to me, and I always went away feeling that they and I understood the situation and ourselves better than before we met.

This was equally true of the professors. I shall never forget the delightful evenings I spent in the homes of some of my colleagues in South America who had invited in a few of their fellow teachers. We talked over all aspects of our respective civilizations as well as the dif-

ferences in university organization and administration and methods of teaching. I can not emphasize too strongly how illuminating to me these discussions were. I do not know that I am particularly well qualified to speak of the psychology of the South American, but what I know of his psychology is largely the result of these delightful gatherings, held in an atmosphere of good fellowship and of give and take. It was impossible to go away from them without having become much better informed on the subjects discussed.

I must digress sufficiently to speak of the lighter side of my association with professors. I could mention several instances but will confine myself to one. While at Cordoba, in Argentina, I delivered a lecture at the university in the morning.



THE UNIVERSITY OF CORDOBA,  
ARGENTINA

This statue of the founder, Bishop Trejo y Sanabria, occupies the center of the cloistered patio of the main building.

One of the professors invited me to lunch at his home in the country. I had a delightful drive among the mountains surrounding the city until we reached his house, from which one had a lovely view of the surrounding region. Upon arriving there I found that quite a group of the professors I had met at the lecture had preceded us. To my great delight the lunch was to be cooked and eaten out of doors. A young lamb was put upon the spit and it was a joy to

participate in the cooking among the embers of the many ingredients of the meal—at least to participate, as I did, to the extent of watching. Such a meal! And many a health was drunk in the delicious wine of the country. It was an afternoon of unrestrained fun and happiness such as one seldom has in life. I shall never forget it.

The fine attitude toward the stranger that I have described was not confined to the university and professional classes. I was anxious to learn the views of as many groups as possible, and when I was at Buenos Aires I had the good fortune to be invited to the House of the People, where I had several conversations with a number of the labor leaders. I found some of them men of unusual intelligence, able and ready to discuss the economic and social problems not only of their own country but of foreign countries, including our own. In fact, they made some very trenchant observations concerning conditions in the United States. But I was especially glad to get their opinion of the direction which the labor movement will take in the next decade. Buenos Aires is a center of labor unionism, and the rapid economic development that has taken place since the war has brought to the fore some interesting and difficult problems. These labor leaders were most courteous in giving of their time to enlighten me as to the situation.

I believe, however, that the finest evidence of South American courtesy was shown in the degree of interest with which my lectures were received. I read the lectures in Spanish in the Spanish-speaking countries, and as I am by no means a Spanish scholar, to listen to me must have been a real trial to my auditors. But I never saw any evidence of it. In practically every instance the audience stayed till the end of the lecture, generously applauded the speaker, and asked many questions on the subject matter. This was also true in Brazil, where I lectured in French. The average North American can learn a great deal in this respect from his South American friends, for he often exhibits a good deal of impatience of a lecturer whom he can not readily understand and sometimes shows it by rising in the midst of the lecture and leaving the room. I was even heard with courtesy when I made extempore remarks in English at a meeting of a chamber of commerce or a Rotary Club when most of my hearers could not understand me at all.

My visit to South America impressed me as never before with the value of personal contact. However open-minded one may be, it is difficult to understand a person whom one has never met. One can learn much from books concerning another people, but one can not ask a question of a book. Personal intercourse is almost essential in the removal of prejudice and misunderstanding. An incident in the life of Henry Clay well illustrates this point. He was very attractive



AN ARGENTINE ESTANCIA

A peaceful scene on one of the country estates such as are found within easy reach of the principal cities of Argentina.



personally, but that did not prevent him being disliked by political opponents.' One such was asked by a mutual friend to permit him to bring Clay and his critic together. The latter refused and when asked for the reason answered "Because then I would like him." Personal contact will not always result in good will. I have seen some of our countrymen wandering about Europe to come into contact with whom would be the best way of arousing prejudice against the United States and its people. But to have the fine people of one country come into personal contact with the fine people of another is one of the surest means of diffusing international understanding. May such intercourse between the fine people of the United States and of South America grow with the lengthening years.



THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF VENEZUELA, CARACAS

The center of higher education in Venezuela was founded August 11, 1725, as the Royal and Pontifical University of Caracas.

# PAN AMERICAN COOPERATION IN PUBLIC HEALTH WORK

## THE PAN AMERICAN SANITARY CONFERENCES AND THE PAN AMERICAN SANITARY BUREAU

By BOLIVAR J. LLOYD, M. D.

*Medical Director, United States Public Health Service; Assistant to the Director,  
Pan American Sanitary Bureau*

**I**NTERNATIONAL cooperation in matters relating to public health is a development which originated in quarantine procedures. Local quarantine, particularly the isolation of those suffering from leprosy, is of great antiquity. Maritime quarantine originated in the countries bordering on the Mediterranean Sea in the sixth century A. D., in efforts to prevent the spread of bubonic plague.

For more than a thousand years after maritime quarantine originated, efforts to exclude exotic disease were confined almost exclusively to quarantine measures applied to persons and things at ports or places of arrival. Gradually, it began to be apparent that the spread of pestilences from one country to another was a matter of mutual concern to all the Governments involved.

In the year 1527, bills of health began to be issued in Europe, to vessels bound from one country to another, but they did not come into general use until about the year 1665. In 1847, the Republic of France originated the practice of stationing medical officers in foreign consulates to keep contagious disease from being imported into her territory. This procedure is still recognized as a valuable cooperative measure.

For nearly a century international conferences on one phase or another of public health have been held in various countries at irregular intervals, participated in, at least in recent years, by nearly all civilized countries.

In 1824 Simón Bolívar, the Liberator, called an inter-American Congress which met at Panama in 1826. At this congress delegates from four Latin American Republics were present. Representatives were also sent by the United States, but embarked too late to reach Panama in time to participate in the deliberations and, in fact, one died on the way. In 1847 and 1864 inter-American conferences were held in Lima, Peru. None of these conferences treated of health matters, nor did that of South American countries held in Montevideo in 1888-1889.



PATIO OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND CHARITIES, HABANA

Statue of Dr. Carlos Finlay, who, for 20 years, persisted in reiterating to an unbelieving world his theory that yellow fever is transmitted by the bite of a particular mosquito, a theory demonstrated to be fact by the work of Reed, Carroll, Lazear, and Agramonte.

In 1881 delegates from twenty-three countries, including Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Haiti, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela from among the Latin American Republics, met in Washington for a general health conference. Resolutions were adopted providing that each government should establish a public health service, report its contagious diseases and publish a weekly bulletin giving the causes of death in its principal cities; that the consuls of the country of destination should have the right to be present at the medical inspection of vessels made on departure, and that a Sanitary Commission should be formed to study and report upon yellow fever.

It is interesting to note that Dr. Carlos Finlay announced at this Conference his famous theory that yellow fever is transmitted in nature by the bite of an infected mosquito.

In 1887 the Governments of Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay entered into an agreement at Rio de Janeiro with regard to quarantine and sanitary procedures. This conference defined such terms as *infected* and *suspected ports and vessels*, provided for the establishment of sanitary services, for direct communication between health authorities, and that uniform measures should be applied in the control of the spread of quarantinable diseases.

In 1888, a sanitary convention was concluded in Lima by Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador and Peru, quite similar in nature to the one just mentioned entered into by Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay, but providing further that inspection and other sanitary measures should be enforced on vessels at ports of departure and that foreign consuls should have the right to be present when these precautions are being carried out.

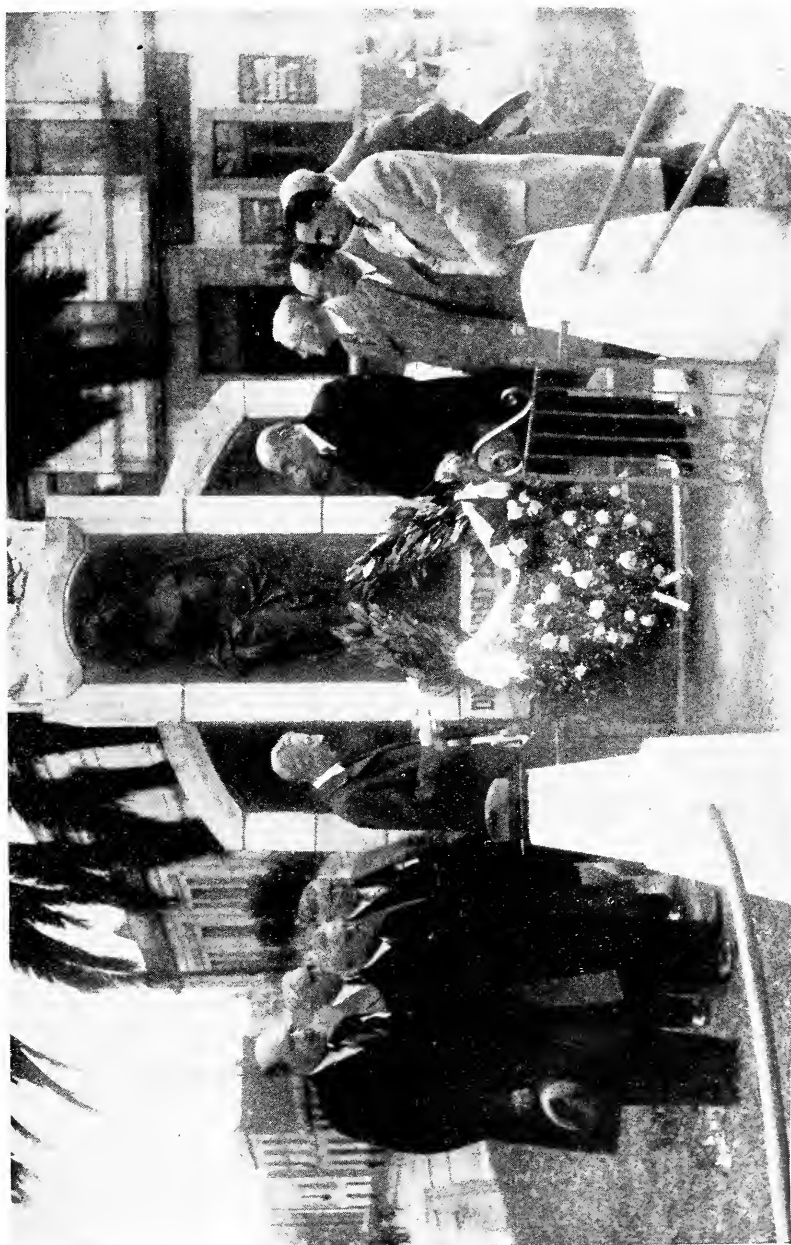
#### THE FIRST INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

In 1889, there assembled in Washington the First International Conference of American States. This Conference provided for the calling of subsequent conferences, and created as its executive organ the Bureau of American Republics, now known as the Pan American Union.

At the time that this First International Conference of American States met, quarantinable diseases, particularly yellow fever, formed perhaps its most vexing and difficult problem. Accordingly, a committee selected from among the delegates of Brazil, Nicaragua, Peru, Venezuela and the United States was named to study disease conditions and formulate sanitary regulations. Little was accomplished other than to recommend that the Conference adopt the measures outlined in the conventions of Rio de Janeiro and Lima.

A decade passed with little further advance in the international control of communicable diseases. Bubonic plague, the dreaded "Black Death" of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, suddenly appeared for the first time in the Western Hemisphere, adding greatly to the perplexities of the health authorities.

In 1898, Dr. Henry Rose Carter, of the United States Public Health Service, announced his proof of the "extrinsic period of incubation" in yellow fever, an expression meaning that after the introduction of a "first case" of this disease into any community, a period of about twelve days must elapse before secondary cases will develop. Carter suggested that this "latent" period might well be the time required for the "germ" of the disease to undergo a cycle of development in the body of some insect.



Courtesy of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau

#### TOMB OF EDUARDO LICÉAGA, MEXICO CITY

Surgeon Gen. Hugh S. Cumming, Director of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, Dr. Rafael Silva, Director General of Health of the Republic of Mexico, and other distinguished health officials at the tomb of Licéaga, one of the pioneers in Pan American cooperative public health work.

That Carter's conclusions were correct and that Finlay's theory that yellow fever is conveyed by the *Aedes aegypti* mosquito is right were then definitely demonstrated by the epoch-making work of Reed, Carroll, Lazear and Agramonte in their experiments in human volunteers in Habana, Cuba, in 1900.

In 1901, the Second International Conference of American States met in Mexico City and its members were confronted by virtually the same public health problems as were presented to the First Conference in 1889.

By this time statesmen had begun to realize that such problems might best be dealt with by physicians trained in public health work. Accordingly it was decided to create a permanent international body similar in character to the conferences dealing with general matters but limited in action to matters affecting the public health. Resolutions were adopted authorizing the creation of "International Sanitary Conferences" and as their executive organ an "International Sanitary Bureau", with permanent headquarters at Washington, D. C.

In accordance with these resolutions, the First International Sanitary Conference met in Washington in October, 1902, and under the guidance of such men as Licéaga, of Mexico, Finlay, of Cuba, Wyman, of the United States, and their colleagues from the same and other countries, there were created the International Sanitary Conferences and the International Sanitary Bureau.<sup>1</sup>

Almost the first act of the First Sanitary Conference was to accept the mosquito theory of the transmission of yellow fever, thereby throwing into the discard many of the former quarantine measures directed against this disease. This was perhaps the greatest step in advance that had been made in international quarantine procedures for more than a century.

It will be recalled that Gorgas and his associates soon demonstrated the enormous practical value of the discovery of the manner of yellow fever transmission by ridding Cuba, and the Isthmus of Panama, including the cities of Panama and Colon, of yellow fever.

Subsequently, through individual effort on the part of various republics, and through international cooperation, particularly with the aid of the International Health Board (Rockefeller Foundation) yellow fever has been eradicated from all American countries except certain parts of Brazil and possibly certain districts in Colombia, very few cases of the disease being reported even from those countries.

The Second International Sanitary Conference, also held in Washington, formulated and adopted the "Washington Convention" which may be regarded as the first Pan American Sanitary Code. Briefly, this code prescribed regulations for combating the spread of

<sup>1</sup> The Fifth International Conference of American States changed these names to Pan American Sanitary Conferences and Pan American Sanitary Bureau, respectively.

plague, cholera, and yellow fever; provided for mutual notification of the presence of these diseases; defined the conditions under which any country or territory should be regarded as "infected," and formulated the measures which might be applied by one country against persons and things arriving from infected districts in another. This code modified and greatly simplified international quarantine procedures.

In 1904 an agreement was formed between the Republics of Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay, known as the Sanitary Convention of Rio de Janeiro. The terms of this agreement embodied chiefly the abolition of sanitary cordons, promises of mutual notification of the presence of plague, cholera and yellow fever, suggestions for measures to be followed in combating these diseases and restrictions in the application of quarantine procedures by one country against another.

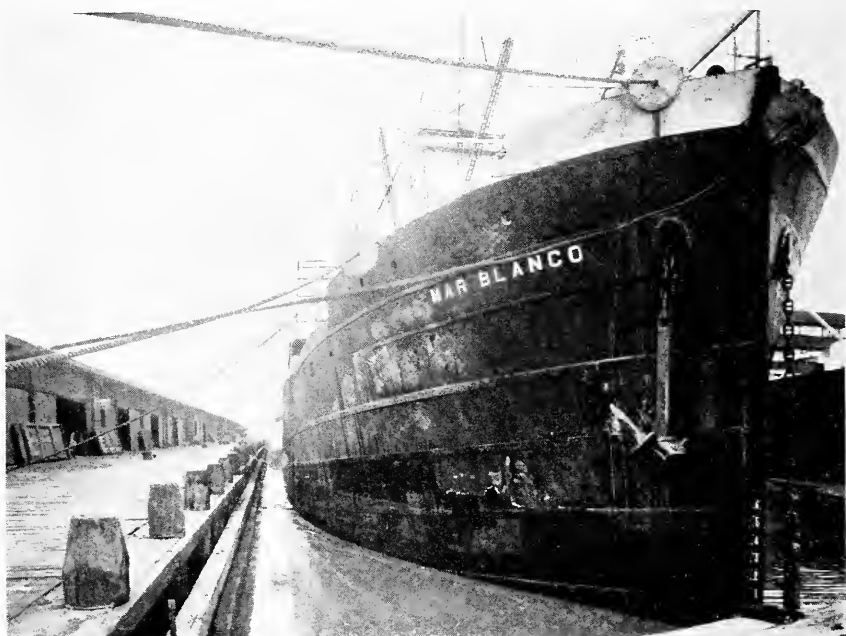
The Third International Sanitary Conference met in Mexico City in 1907. This body reiterated the principles adopted by the First and Second Conferences and went on record as favoring compulsory vaccination, intensive campaigns of education in methods for combating malaria, the exclusion of immigrants suffering from trachoma or beri-beri, the centralization of public health administration in the Federal Government and special measures for the combating of tuberculosis.

The Fourth Pan American Sanitary Conference met in San José, Costa Rica, in 1909-10. This Conference was occupied chiefly with matters pertaining to measures for combating bilharziasis, leprosy, hydrophobia, typhus fever, hookworm, plague and yellow fever; the sanitation of seaports; measures for securing safe water and adequate sanitary disposal of sewage, and measures to be applied to outgoing vessels at infected ports in order to protect other countries.

The Fifth International Sanitary Conference met in Santiago, Chile, in 1911. Among the resolutions passed by this Conference were those recommending: the study and subsequent revision of the International Sanitary Code adopted by the Second Conference; the training of physicians and others to become specialists in hygiene and sanitation; the establishment of laboratories for the analysis of foods and drinks; the establishment of leprosariums; the establishment by each country of a permanent commission to study and combat tuberculosis; and the provision for municipalities of safe water supplies and sanitary disposal of sewage at actual cost of operation.

The occurrence of the World War interrupted the holding of international sanitary conferences for a period of nine years. However, the Sixth International Sanitary Conference was called to meet in Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1920. This Conference recommended that measures be taken to combat the social diseases; made typhus fever

a reportable disease; called attention to the necessity of combating intestinal parasitoses; recommended an extensive revision of the Washington Convention; called attention to the necessity of popular education in hygiene and sanitation; and reorganized the International Sanitary Bureau, authorizing it to publish a monthly bulletin devoted to the dissemination of information concerning matters affecting the public health. Surgeon General Hugh S. Cumming, of the United States Public Health Service, was elected Director, and is now serving his third term in this capacity.



Courtesy of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau

#### CAMPAIGN AGAINST RATS

Vessels from plague infected ports are required to fend off at least 4 feet and to place guards on lines when anchored in ports of the United States.

The Fifth International Conference of American States met in Santiago, Chile, in 1923, and changed the names of the Sanitary Conferences and the Sanitary Bureau from *International* to *Pan American* Sanitary Conferences and *Pan American* Sanitary Bureau. The latter body was charged with the duty of preparing a complete revision of the Washington Convention, as had already been recommended by the Fifth and Sixth Sanitary Conferences. This led to the drafting of—

#### THE PAN AMERICAN SANITARY CODE

The Pan American Sanitary Code is primarily an international sanitary treaty the objects of which are: (a) To prevent the interna-



tional spread of communicable disease; (b) to promote international cooperative measures; (c) to standardize morbidity and mortality statistics; (d) to stimulate the mutual interchange of information which may be of value in combating disease, and (e) to further standardize quarantine measures. It was adopted by the Seventh Pan American Sanitary Conference at Habana, Cuba, in 1924, and subsequently ratified by eighteen American Republics. It is also effective in the other three, pending formal ratification.

The provisions of the Pan American Sanitary Code, while simple, are somewhat technical in character and will therefore not be given here. In addition to perfecting and adopting the code, the Seventh Conference strengthened and enlarged the powers of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau and imposed upon it many additional duties. Perhaps it will be well here to review in some detail the development of—

#### THE PAN AMERICAN SANITARY BUREAU

As already stated, the creation of the International Sanitary Conferences and the International Sanitary Bureau was authorized by the Second International Conference of American States, and the name changed to Pan American Sanitary Conferences and Pan American Sanitary Bureau by the Fifth.

Organization was effected by the First International Sanitary Conference, in 1902, and members of the International Sanitary Bureau were elected. As only the Director of the Bureau resided in Washington and there were no funds to pay traveling expenses, the members of the Bureau could never meet except at the time of their election at a Sanitary Conference. This of course did not detract from the importance of the work of the Sanitary Conferences themselves, but there was no organized body to "carry on" during the interim. What few activities there were during the intervals between conferences were carried out by the Director of the Sanitary Bureau and the Director of the Bureau of the American Republics (Pan American Union). In 1920, the Sanitary Bureau was reorganized and its funds increased to \$20,000 per annum; in 1924, its powers were broadened, its duties further increased and its funds raised to \$50,000 a year.

As at present constituted, the Pan American Sanitary Bureau consists of an honorary director, a director, an assistant to the director, and five members who meet in Washington once in twelve to eighteen months; in addition, there are scientific and clerical personnel who, under the supervision of the Director, are daily engaged in carrying on its work. An office is provided for the Bureau in the building of the Pan American Union, in Washington. There are also scientific personnel who, as traveling representatives, visit the various repub-

lies from time to time for the purpose of conferring with the health and other authorities on matters pertaining to sanitation and the public health, and actually to assist in cooperative public health work.

The Second International Conference of American States provided that the expenses for the maintenance of the Sanitary Bureau should be paid by the various affiliated republics on a basis of population.

The resolutions creating the Sanitary Conferences provided that "authority shall be conferred by each government upon its delegates. . . . to join . . . in the conclusion of such sanitary agreements and regulations as may be in the best interests of all the republics represented." It will thus be seen that the Sanitary Conferences are authorized to conclude treaties (ad referendum) in dealing with matters pertaining to the public health. The Pan American Sanitary Bureau as the executive organ of the Sanitary Conference is (by implication, and in recent years by direction) charged with the duty of urging that the agreements made at the conferences be carried out. In the resolutions referred to it is stipulated that "the said republics shall promptly and regularly transmit to said [Sanitary] Bureau all data of every character relative to the sanitary condition of their respective ports and territories and furnish said Bureau every opportunity and aid for a thorough and careful study and investigation of any outbreaks of pestilential diseases which may occur within the territory of any of the said republics, to the end that said Bureau may be able to lend its best aid toward the widest possible protection of the public health of each of the said republics and that commerce between said republics may be facilitated."

The First International Sanitary Conference meeting in Washington, in 1902, reiterated the duties of the Sanitary Bureau just outlined and added, "it shall be the duty of the Sanitary Bureau to encourage and aid or enforce in all proper ways the sanitation of seaports . . . including the destruction of mosquitoes and other vermin."

Subsequent conferences, both sanitary and general, have from time to time granted additional powers and imposed additional duties on the Sanitary Bureau. Following the Sixth International Sanitary Conference (1920) the publication of the *Pan American Sanitary Bulletin* was begun (1922). The Fifth International Conference of American States (1923) charged the Sanitary Bureau with the duty of drafting an international sanitary code revising the Washington Convention. The Seventh Pan American Sanitary Conference (1924), in adopting the Pan American Sanitary Code, confirmed in the Code (now a treaty) all the powers previously granted to the Pan American Sanitary Bureau and reimposed all previously mentioned duties. In addition the Pan American Sanitary Code made the Bureau the central coordinating sanitary agency

of the various republics; authorized the detail of representatives to visit and confer with the sanitary authorities of the signatory Governments on public health matters; directed the Bureau to supply signatory Governments with all available information relative to the status of communicable diseases, new methods of combating disease, information regarding public health organization and administration and of progress in all branches of preventive medicine; authorized the undertaking of cooperative epidemiological and other studies, the facilitation of research, the acceptance of gifts, benefactions and bequests; provided for the detail of officials of the National Health Services for duty with the Bureau and, upon request, steps to bring about an exchange of professors, medical, and health officers, experts or advisers in public health or any of the sanitary sciences.

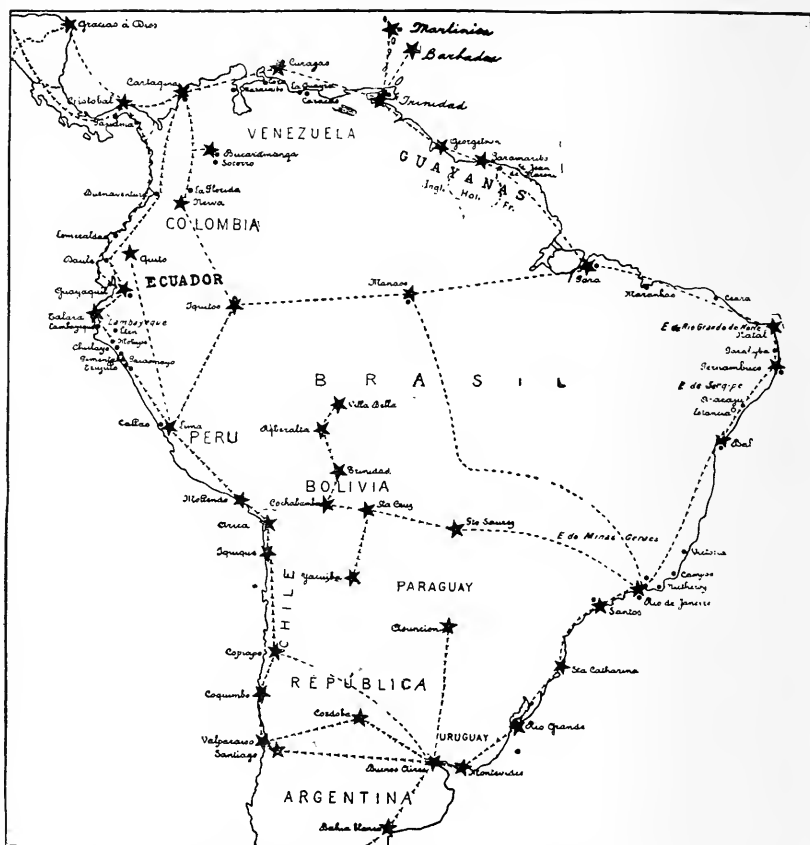
From the foregoing brief summary of the powers and duties of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, it is manifest that the Conferences of the American Republics have always recognized the importance of, the necessity for the continuous existence of an autonomous body which would carry out the expressed will of these and of the Sanitary Conferences in matters pertaining to the prevention of the spread of disease, which would represent the mutual sanitary interests of all the American Republics, harmonize their differences if these should exist, meet new situations and mediate to adjust new difficulties as they might arise, and promote in every way possible within the limits of international law and in accord with mutual agreement, progress in health and sanitation in all the American Republics.

Let us now review briefly, in concrete form, the actual work of the Sanitary Bureau. What are its achievements, its possibilities, its needs? What may it undertake to do? What is its future?

The activities of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau may conveniently be grouped into five classes, namely:

- (1) Those involving international relations.
- (2) Efforts directed toward encouraging the development of efficient Health Services for all the people, both urban and rural, in all the American Republics.
- (3) Special studies, investigations and, when mutually agreed upon, special activities to combat outbreaks of disease or to improve sanitary conditions in any republic in cooperation with national and local authorities.
- (4) It acts as a consulting bureau for the health departments of all the American republics.
- (5) The Pan American Sanitary Conferences and the Conferences of the National Directors of Health are held under the auspices of the Sanitary Bureau.

In the absence of preventive measures, the prevalence of many communicable diseases is proportionate to density of population and

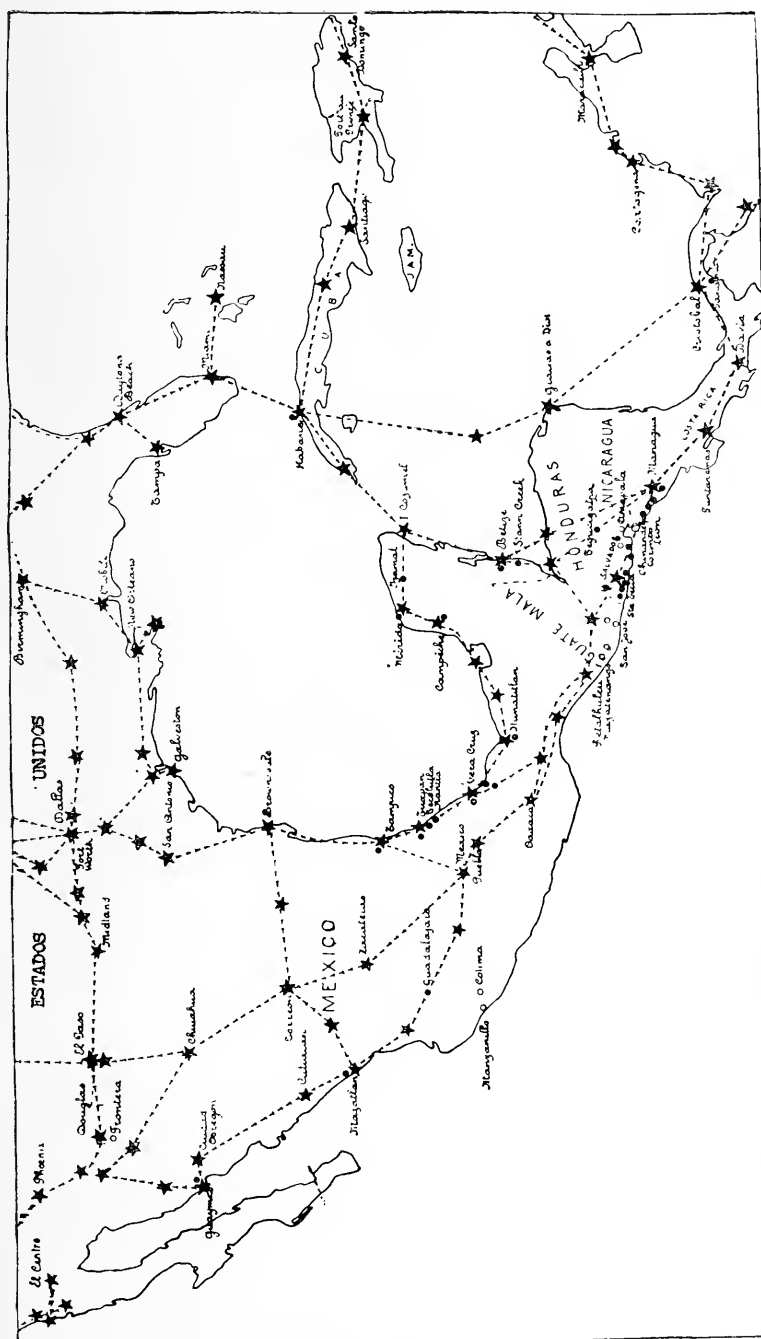


Adapted from publications of the Office International d'Hygiène Publique, Paris

MAP OF YELLOW FEVER AREAS, 1910-1930, AND AIR ROUTES

This map and that on the opposite page indicate how dangerous yellow fever would be to-day if it were not under control. Practically all of the territory shown here is infectible. Few people realize what a scourge this disease once was or the enormous commercial value of the work that has been done by health authorities in the Americas in combating it. Dash lines represent air routes, either established or projected. Dots indicate localities on air routes which have had yellow fever at some time during the period from 1910 to 1930. Circles indicate other localities which have had yellow fever.

the amount and rapidity of means for intercommunication, in other words, of transportation facilities. If present preventive and sanitary measures for the protection of the public health should be suspended for any considerable length of time, former epidemics and pestilences would seem mild in comparison with those that could reasonably be expected to follow such a period of inactivity. In order to prevent the spread of disease, particularly with our present means of rapid transit, it is necessary to know where the disease exists. It is the duty of the Sanitary Bureau to be informed of the existence of plague, yellow fever, cholera, smallpox and other dangerous conta-



Adapted from publications of the Office International d'Hygiène Publique, Paris  
 MAP OF NORTH AMERICAN YELLOW FEVER AREAS, 1910-1930, AND AIR ROUTES  
 [See legend under map on opposite page]

gious diseases throughout the American Republics and to inform all republics of the presence of such diseases in any one or more countries.

Conversely, it is the duty of each republic promptly to inform the Sanitary Bureau of the existence of dangerous communicable disease in any of its territory. In addition to collecting and transmitting information of outbreaks of disease as they may occur in the American Republics, the Sanitary Bureau also forwards this information to the International Office of Public Hygiene of Paris and in turn receives reports from that office of the presence of such diseases throughout Europe, Asia and Africa, which it transmits to the health authorities of all the American Republics.

Not infrequently outbreaks of disease in one country will cause great alarm in others, particularly if such outbreaks are featured in the daily press, and health authorities are apt to be stampeded by public clamor into resorting to drastic and even obsolete quarantine measures. In such cases it devolves on the Sanitary Bureau to remind all countries concerned of their treaty obligations made in calmer moments in order to limit quarantine activities to a minimum of restrictions consistent with safety. At the same time the Nation in whose territory the outbreak of disease has occurred is pledged to keep the Sanitary Bureau informed of the progress of the outbreak and the measures being taken to prevent the spread of disease to other countries and to eradicate it from her own territory.

Efforts toward developing efficient health services throughout the American Republics are limited only by the resources of the Bureau and the desires of the Government concerned. At present such efforts are being fostered by information published in the *Pan American Sanitary Bulletin* and to some extent by traveling representatives engaged principally in special lines of work.

Special studies and active cooperation in field work have so far been chiefly in connection with combating bubonic plague. It is expected that other special work will be begun in the near future.

Directors of Health and others are privileged to write the Sanitary Bureau for information or advice on any matters which may affect the public health and such consultations occur with relative frequency. The Sanitary Bureau, in addition to other activities in connection with the holding of the Sanitary Conferences, assists in preparing the scientific programs and publishes their proceedings.

#### COOPERATION WITH THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

As has been already said, in the early days of its existence, the few activities of the Sanitary Bureau were carried on by the Director of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau and the Director General of the Pan American Union. Close cooperation is still maintained between

the two offices, each rendering the other every possible mutual assistance.

#### THE PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES OF DIRECTORS OF HEALTH

The Fifth International Conference of American States (1923) recommended that the Directors of Health of all the American Republics should meet in Washington in general conference at intervals of not less than five years. The programs for these conferences are prepared by the Sanitary Bureau after consultation with the Directing Heads of the Public Health Services of all the affiliated republics. The Bureau also publishes the proceedings of these important conferences.

In conclusion it may be said that the Pan American Sanitary Bureau is a permanent international body whose usefulness is limited only by its resources, by the powers granted it, by willingness on the part of affiliated Governments to accept its services and by the wisdom of those who guide its destinies.

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## UNITED STATES TRADE WITH LATIN AMERICA IN 1931

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THE total trade of the United States with the 20 Latin American Republics for the year ended December 31, 1931, as shown in the table below, amounted to \$792,060,000. The imports were \$478,251,000, and the exports, \$313,809,000.

The total trade shows a falling off in value of 39.3 per cent as compared with the preceding year. There was a decline of 29.2 per cent in imports and 50 per cent in exports.

Imports from the northern group of countries and from South America showed almost the same relative decline—29.8 per cent and 29.2 per cent, respectively, as compared with 1930. Commenting on the decline in imports from Latin America, *Commerce Reports*, in its edition of February 15, 1932, says:

In the case of Argentina, the decrease of 50 per cent in value was mainly attributable to low prices of flaxseed, wool, and cattle hides, and a decrease in quantity of imports of meats and cattle hides. Imports from Brazil fell off only 16 per cent in value—attributable largely to low prices of coffee. . . . Purchases of sugar from Cuba and of copper, lead, and petroleum from Mexico were considerably smaller.

Exports to the northern group of republics fell off 46.4 per cent as compared with 1930, while those to South America declined 53.1 per cent.

Referring to this decline, *Commerce Reports*, quoted above, states:

Substantial reductions in shipments of iron and steel, agricultural machinery, automobiles, and other classes of finished articles account for the sharp drop in value of United States exports to Mexico and the countries of South America.

The trade of the United States with the various Latin American countries for the year ended December, 1931, compared with that of the preceding year, is shown in the following table, which has been compiled from statements furnished by the Statistical Office of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce:

*Trade of the United States with Latin America, 12 months ended December*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	Imports		Exports		Total trade	
	1930	1931	1930	1931	1930	1931
Mexico.....	80,293	47,611	116,135	52,365	196,428	99,976
Guatemala.....	7,400	4,651	7,305	5,197	14,705	9,848
El Salvador.....	2,875	2,231	4,457	3,483	7,332	5,714
Honduras.....	12,600	11,870	9,602	5,980	22,202	17,850
Nicaragua.....	3,522	2,383	4,869	3,565	8,391	5,948
Costa Rica.....	4,813	3,735	4,555	3,524	9,368	7,259
Panama.....	4,735	4,590	35,900	23,728	40,635	28,318
Cuba.....	121,949	90,059	93,550	47,985	215,499	138,044
Dominican Republic.....	7,255	5,126	9,271	6,010	16,526	11,136
Haiti.....	1,123	760	7,104	4,823	8,227	5,583
North American Republics.....	246,565	173,016	292,748	156,600	539,313	329,676
Argentina.....	71,891	35,979	129,862	52,636	201,753	88,615
Bolivia <sup>1</sup> .....	152	43	4,219	1,784	4,371	1,827
Brazil.....	130,854	110,301	53,809	28,579	184,663	138,880
Chile.....	54,812	39,977	46,374	21,462	101,186	61,439
Colombia.....	97,139	75,481	25,130	16,052	122,269	91,533
Ecuador.....	5,554	3,603	4,866	2,935	10,420	6,538
Paraguay <sup>1</sup> .....	247	155	1,067	602	1,314	757
Peru.....	21,284	8,974	15,721	7,935	37,005	16,909
Uruguay.....	12,354	3,877	21,413	9,519	33,767	13,396
Venezuela.....	36,868	26,845	32,967	15,645	69,835	42,490
South American Republics.....	431,155	305,235	335,428	157,149	766,583	462,384
Total Latin America.....	677,720	478,251	628,176	313,809	1,305,896	792,060

<sup>1</sup> United States statistics credit commodities in considerable quantities imported from and exported to Bolivia and Paraguay via ports situated in neighboring countries, not to the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay but to the countries in which the ports of departure or entry are located.



# THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

## AS THE PERMANENT ORGAN

### OF THE INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN CONFERENCES

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FOUR years have now elapsed since the Sixth International Conference of American States adjourned at Habana on February 20, 1928. The place of meeting of the Seventh Conference has been set as Montevideo, and the time as December, 1932. At each International Conference of this series a number of resolutions and conclusions is adopted calling for special or technical conferences or requiring some further action in order that the aforesaid resolutions and conclusions may be made effective. In fact, the effectiveness of the recommendations of the International Conferences of American States, as of any gathering meeting at relatively long intervals and then only for short periods, lies in having a permanent organization charged with the responsibility of carrying out the conclusions of the Conference. Under the statutes of the Pan American Union, as adopted at the fifth of these conferences, one of the functions of the Union is to serve as the permanent commission of the International Conferences, to keep their records and archives; to assist in obtaining ratification of the treaties and conventions, as well as compliance with the resolutions adopted; and to prepare the program and regulations of each conference.

The present would therefore appear to be an opportune time for a review of the steps that have been taken by the Pan American Union to give effect to the conclusions adopted at the Sixth International Conference of American States. At the outset, it may be said that at the Conference at Habana a larger number of conclusions were adopted than at any previous gathering, 11 conventions having been signed and 62 resolutions, 7 motions, and 4 agreements approved. Many of these conclusions specifically intrusted certain functions to the Pan American Union to be carried into effect. Broadly speaking, the duties devolving upon the Pan American Union in giving effect to the conclusions reached at the International Conferences may be grouped under three general headings:

1. Those relating to the calling of conferences of a special or technical character.



Courtesy of the Department of Public Works, Cuba

#### THE FRATERNITY TREE, HABANA, CUBA

This ceiba tree, in the plaza of the same name adjoining the Capitol, was planted February 24, 1928, by delegates to the Sixth International Conference of American States, in soil brought from historical places of the 21 American republics.

2. Those involving special investigations and the preparation of specific reports.

3. Those relating to the deposit of ratifications of the conventions signed at the conferences.

The activities of the Union under these categories since 1928 may be briefly summarized as follows:

## I

### SPECIAL AND TECHNICAL CONFERENCES

The Sixth International Conference of American States authorized the calling of a series of special conferences which, because of the technical character of the subjects, or the lack of time in which to give to the topics the detailed consideration which their importance required, the Conference itself was unable to resolve. The Governing Board of the Pan American Union was generally intrusted with the designation of the date and place of meeting of these special or technical gatherings. The conferences which have met during the last four years as a result of resolutions adopted at Habana, with a summary of the conclusions at which they arrived, are listed below:

#### 1. INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES ON CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

The first and one of the most important of the special conferences growing out of the Habana meeting was the International Conference of American States on Conciliation and Arbitration, which met at Washington from December 10, 1928, to January 5, 1929. The peaceful solution of international controversies was one of the major questions on the agenda of the Habana conference, but lack of time in which to consider the topic in all its details made it necessary to refer it to a special conference. Twenty nations were represented at the gathering in Washington, at which three instruments of far-reaching significance were signed: a General Treaty of Inter-American Arbitration; a General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation; and a Protocol of Progressive Arbitration.

At the very outset of this Conference a striking demonstration was offered of the unity of spirit which prevails among the Republics of the American Continent: the Conference offered its good offices to the Governments of Bolivia and Paraguay in the conflict which had occurred between the two countries in the Chaco region. The offer was immediately accepted, resulting in the creation of the Commission of Inquiry and Conciliation, Bolivia and Paraguay, which brought about a resumption of diplomatic relations between the parties and the reestablishment of the status quo in the disputed territory as it

existed prior to December 5, 1928. Delegates met again at Washington on November 11, 1931, to discuss a nonaggression pact.<sup>1</sup>

## 2. PAN AMERICAN TRADE MARK CONFERENCE

Shortly after the close of the Conference on Conciliation and Arbitration, the Pan American Trade Mark Conference convened at Washington under the auspices of the Pan American Union and continued in session from February 11 to 20, 1929. Representatives of nineteen countries participated in the Conference, at which a general Inter-American Convention on Trade Mark and Commercial Protection and a Protocol on the Inter-American Registration of Trade Marks were signed. A draft of convention prepared by the Pan American Union served as a basis of discussion for the delegates.

## 3. PAN AMERICAN HIGHWAY CONGRESS

The First Pan American Highway Congress met at Buenos Aires in 1925, pursuant to a resolution adopted at the Fifth International Conference of American States in Santiago. At the Habana Conference specific recommendations were made of studies to be undertaken at the Second Highway Congress, particularly with reference to the construction of an Inter-American Highway and the regulation of automotive traffic. The Second Congress met at Rio de Janeiro from August 16 to 28, 1929. The Pan American Union, in cooperation with the Pan American Confederation for Highway Education, prepared documentary material on the regulation of automotive traffic, including a draft convention which was submitted for the information of the delegates; and a report on possible routes of an Inter-American Highway.

Both of these matters received further consideration at subsequent conferences and became the subject of definite agreements between representatives of the American Republics.

## 4. INTER-AMERICAN HIGHWAY CONFERENCE

Shortly after the adjournment of the Pan American Highway Congress at Rio de Janeiro the Government of Panama convened the Inter-American Highway Conference at Panama on October 7th, 1929. This Conference, which continued in session until October 12, and in which many of the delegates attending the Rio Conference participated, was called for the express purpose of considering questions involved in the construction of an Inter-American Highway, and particularly that section extending northward from Panama to the United States. As a consequence representatives of Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, and the United States only

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<sup>1</sup> See Bulletin of the Pan American Union, December, 1931.

were in attendance. The Government of Mexico had already laid out the route of the road that will constitute the Mexican Section of the Inter-American Highway and for that reason did not deem it necessary to participate in the Conference. The outcome of the deliberations was the creation of an Inter-American Highway Commission composed of members of each of the countries represented at the Conference for the purpose of making surveys to determine the most practical route of the road through the respective countries. A meeting of the Commission was held at Panama in March, 1931, and engineers of the Commission have made reconnaissance surveys of the most feasible route to be traversed by the highway.

#### 5. PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON THE REGULATION OF AUTOMOTIVE TRAFFIC

The draft convention on the regulation of automotive traffic, submitted to the Second Pan American Highway Congress at Rio de Janeiro, received the approval of that body, but was not formally signed, inasmuch as the delegates did not possess plenipotentiary powers. For that purpose the Governing Board of the Pan American Union took advantage of the presence in Washington in October, 1930, of the delegates of the American Republics to the Sixth International Road Congress to convene a special Conference on the Regulation of Automotive Traffic.

This gathering met at the Pan American Union from October 4 to 6 and formally approved and signed the Pan American Convention on the Regulation of International Automotive Traffic, with minor modifications. Certified copies of the Convention have been sent by the Pan American Union to the Governments of all the American Republics.

#### 6. PAN AMERICAN COMMISSION ON CUSTOMS PROCEDURE AND PORT FORMALITIES

A resolution adopted at Habana authorized the calling of a conference on the elimination of unnecessary port formalities and the establishment of steamship lines. Prior to the Habana Conference the Governing Board of the Pan American Union had taken steps to convene a commission on the simplification and standardization of customs procedure and in view of the close relation of port formalities to customs procedure, the two subjects were combined and submitted to the Pan American Commission on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities. That portion of the Habana resolution relating to steamship lines was considered at the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference and will be referred to under the discussion of that conference.

The Commission on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities met at the Pan American Union from November 18 to 26, 1929, with twenty countries represented. In advance of the meeting documentary material was prepared and principles were formulated which were made the basis of discussion by the Commission. The conference resulted in the adoption of a series of resolutions as well as a draft convention covering port formalities, customs procedure and regulations applicable to airports.

The project of Convention on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities was considered at the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference in October, 1931, at which a number of modifications were proposed. It was agreed that the project and the proposed amendments should be forwarded to the Governments for observation and comment and that the draft convention should be submitted to the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo, with a view to arriving at a final agreement on the subject.

#### 7. PAN AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

A resolution of the Sixth International Conference of American States created the Pan American Institute of Geography and History to serve as a center of cooperation and coordination in geographical and historical studies in the Republics of the American Continent. The seat of the Institute was to be established in the capital of that Republic designated by the Pan American Union. The Governing Board of the Union selected Mexico and the first meeting of the Institute was held in the Capital of that Republic from September 16 to 22, 1929. Representatives of eighteen countries were in attendance. The next meeting will be held at Rio de Janeiro.

#### 8. INTER-AMERICAN CONGRESS OF RECTORS, DEANS, AND EDUCATORS

The Inter-American Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators met at Habana from February 20 to 23, 1930, to prepare the definitive statutes of the Inter-American Institute of Intellectual Cooperation which had been created by the Sixth Conference. The place and date of meeting were determined by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union in agreement with the Government of Cuba, and pursuant to the terms of the resolution authorizing the Congress, the Pan American Union also prepared a draft of organization of the Institute of Intellectual Cooperation and formulated a program for the Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators.

The Program of the Seventh International Conference of American States provides for the consideration of the results of the Congress of Rectors, Deans and Educators.

## 9. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION OF WOMEN

Simultaneously with the Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators, the Inter-American Commission of Women was in session at Habana, the meeting extending from February 17 to 24, 1930. This body was also provided for by resolution of the Habana Conference for the purpose of preparing juridical and other information that will enable the Seventh International Conference to consider the civil and political equality of women on the American Continent.

The resolution of Habana creating the commission requested the Pan American Union to designate the first seven members, which was done at a session of the Governing Board in April, 1928. The headquarters of the commission have been established at the Pan American Union.

At the Seventh International Conference, consideration will be given to the report of the Commission of Women on the political and civil equality of women. A topic to this effect has been incorporated in the program of the Montevideo Conference.

## 10. INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON AGRICULTURE

No fewer than four proposals on inter-American agricultural cooperation were introduced into the Sixth International Conference of American States. Three of these were referred to the Pan American Union with the recommendation that they be submitted for study to the Seventh Conference, to a commission of experts, or to the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference; while the fourth authorized the Pan American Union to designate the date and place of meeting of an inter-American conference on plant and animal sanitary control.

The outcome of the study of these various proposals by a special committee of the Governing Board was the Inter-American Conference on Agriculture which met at the Pan American Union from September 8 to 20, 1930, with representatives of all the countries members of the Union in attendance.

In anticipation of the Conference, and pursuant to the resolution adopted at Habana, the Pan American Union established a new Division of Agricultural Cooperation. National committees of agricultural cooperation were appointed in each of the countries members of the Union and documentary material was prepared for the information of the delegates to the Conference.

## 11. FOURTH PAN AMERICAN COMMERCIAL CONFERENCE

The Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference met at the Pan American Union from October 5 to 13, 1931. As in the case of its predecessors, the Conference was held under the immediate

auspices of the Pan American Union, with representatives in attendance from the Governments and commercial associations of all the American Republics. In formulating the program the special committee of the Governing Board included therein a number of topics which the Sixth International Conference of American States recommended should be treated at special conferences, and which were considered by the program committee as properly falling within the scope of the Commercial Conference. These topics, with the action taken thereon, are as follows:

*a. The Development of Ocean Steamship Services between the American Republics.*—This topic was intended to cover that portion of the resolution adopted at Habana relative to steamship lines and unnecessary port formalities, the latter subject having been submitted to the Pan American Commission on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities. The Commercial Conference confirmed the resolution adopted at Habana and recommended that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union convene a meeting of technical experts to study the question of maritime services among the countries of America. As a preliminary step to such a meeting, the Governing Board has authorized the appropriate Division of the Pan American Union to undertake a study of existing steamship services and to submit its findings to the Governing Board for transmission to the respective Governments.

*b. The Compilation and Dissemination of Financial and Economic Statistics.*—This topic was intended to include the consideration of the compilation of statistics on maritime, land, and aerial communications which the Sixth Conference recommended should be made the subject of study by a special commission. In preparation for the Commercial Conference documentary material was prepared on the type of statistical information that might be compiled by the several Governments. The Commercial Conference recommended that every endeavor be made to have the Governments compile and publish statistical data on all phases of the national economy.

*c. Uniformity of Consular Fees in the American Republics.*—The Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference gave careful consideration to this subject and recommended to the Governments of the American Republics that they charge only fixed minimum consular fees on shipping documents and that no additional surcharge or tax of any nature be collected at the port of embarkation; also that the collection of any other charges on imports be made solely at the ports of entry.

*d. Standardization of Commodities as an Aid to Commerce.*—The Commercial Conference recommended that the American Republics make known the specifications, composition, and analyses of their



agricultural and mineral products which enter into their export trade; and also that they subscribe to the draft convention formulated by the Inter-American High Commission for the establishment of uniform specifications and common nomenclature in the countries of the Continent.

## 12. OTHER CONFERENCES

The foregoing represent the conferences, congresses, and commissions mentioned in or growing out of resolutions of the Sixth International Conference of American States, which have already been held. In addition a number of others are still pending, as follows:

*a. Second Pan American Congress of Journalists.*—The First Congress of Journalists met at the Pan American Union in April, 1926, and pursuant to the resolution adopted at that time, Montevideo has been designated as the seat of the Second Congress. The precise date of meeting, however, has not yet been determined. Pursuant to the terms of the resolution adopted at Habana a draft of permanent organization of the Pan American Congresses of Journalists has been prepared by the Pan American Union and will be submitted to the Congress at Montevideo when it convenes.

*b. Inter-American Bibliographic Commission.*—This Commission was originally scheduled to assemble at Habana at the time of the Inter-American Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators, in February, 1930. Because of a conflict of dates with several other conferences held in Habana at that time, the meeting of the Bibliographic Commission was postponed and thus far no new date has been fixed. As a step in the promotion of bibliographic cooperation, national bibliographic committees have been formed in a number of countries and an Inter-American Bibliographic Association has been organized and has prepared a comprehensive program of inter-American cooperation. Bibliography appears as a topic in the program of the Seventh International Conference.

*c. Pan American Pedagogical Congress.*—A resolution adopted at Habana requested the Pan American Union to determine the time and place of meeting of the Pan American Pedagogical Congress, in which representatives of normal and upper elementary schools should participate. Santiago, Chile, has been designated as the seat of the Congress and 1932 as the year in which it will meet, but the precise date has not yet been fixed.

*d. Pan American Congress of Municipalities.*—The resolution adopted at the Sixth Conference provided that the Pan American Congress of Municipalities should be held at Habana during the year 1931. The meeting, however, was postponed and a new date has not yet been selected.

In addition to the conferences held pursuant to recommendations of the Sixth International Conference of American States, a number of other Pan American Congresses have met since 1928. To complete this record of Pan American activity as represented by conferences, there is given below a list of such assemblages which have been held during the last four years:

1. Fourth Pan American Congress of Architects, which met at Rio de Janeiro from June 19 to 30, 1930.

2. The Sixth Pan American Child Congress, which met at Lima from July 4 to 11, 1930.

3. The Second Pan American Congress of National Directors of Public Health, which met at the Pan American Union under the auspices of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau from April 20 to 28, 1931.

4. The Third Pan American Postal Conference, which met at Madrid, from October 10 to November 10, 1931.

## II

### MISCELLANEOUS ACTIVITIES

Whether the special conferences and congresses are held at the Pan American Union or under the auspices of one of the Governments members of the Union, that organization cooperates in every possible way in making preparations for them and in making effective the conclusions that may be adopted. Reference has already been made, in speaking of the special or technical conferences growing out of the Sixth International Conference, of some of the activities of the Pan American Union in preparing documentary material for the information of the delegates. Among this material may be mentioned the project of convention on trade mark protection prepared in anticipation of the Pan American Trade Mark Conference in 1929; the formulation of a draft convention on the regulation of automotive traffic, submitted to the Second Pan American Highway Congress and signed at the Pan American Union in October, 1930; the formulation of a draft of organization of the Inter-American Institute of Intellectual Cooperation for the Congress of Rectors, Deans and Educators which met at Habana in 1930; the preparation of a draft of permanent organization of the Pan American Congresses of Journalists to be submitted to the Second Congress when it convenes at Montevideo; the compilation of material on the Inter-American Highway and cooperation in the arrangements for the reconnaissance survey to determine the most feasible route; the survey of existing steamship facilities among the American Republics as authorized by the Governing Board pursuant to resolutions adopted at the Sixth International Conference and the Fourth Pan American

Commercial Conference; an inquiry into inter-American commercial arbitration, the results of which will be submitted to the Seventh International Conference of American States.

For those conferences which are held at the Pan American Union, the duty also devolves upon the Union of making the necessary preparations for the organization and conduct of the sessions.

As a result of the conclusions adopted at the Sixth International Conference several enlargements were made in the administrative organization of the Pan American Union. To enable the Union to carry out the recommendations adopted at Habana pertaining to agricultural cooperation on the American Continent, a Division of Agricultural Cooperation was created in 1928.<sup>2</sup> This Division has, since its foundation, published numerous reports on all phases of agricultural endeavor and is actively engaged in giving effect to the recommendations of the Inter-American Conference on Agriculture which met at Washington in September, 1930.

It was also found advisable to change the title of the Division of Education of the Pan American Union to that of Division of Intellectual Cooperation, in order that the scope of its activities might include the promotion of closer cultural and intellectual relations among the American Republics and the Pan American Union be enabled more effectively to put into execution the recommendations adopted at Habana.

In continuation of the work of codification of international law, a resolution adopted at Habana recommended the establishment of three committees, one at Rio de Janeiro on Public International Law, another at Montevideo on Private International Law, and a third at Habana on Comparative Legislation and Uniformity of Legislation, the work of these committees to be carried on in cooperation and conjunction with the American Institute of International Law. The Pan American Union was also requested, in so far as its organization would permit, to cooperate in the preparatory work of codification. The Committees at Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, and Habana have been appointed, and provision has been made in the program of the Seventh International Conference of American States for the presentation and consideration of projects that may be formulated by these bodies.

At the same time the American Institute of International Law has been requested to undertake the preparation of projects on certain topics of international law appearing in the program of the Seventh Conference and to place them before the delegates at Montevideo.

Since the Conference at Habana the Pan American Union has been in constant touch with the members of the Pan American Railway Committee and has endeavored in every way to cooperate with the Committee in carrying out the duties intrusted to it. With a view

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<sup>2</sup> See "Agricultural Cooperation in the Americas," p. 279.

to facilitating the construction of those links which yet remain in the projected railway, the Governing Board of the Union has recommended the establishment of national committees in each country through which the railway is to run, which committees it is proposed shall make studies of the present status of the railway and submit their findings to the Central Committee. Provision has been made in the program of the Seventh Conference for the submission and consideration of the report of the Pan American Railway Committee.

As approved by the Governing Board, the program of the Seventh International Conference contains a number of topics recommended for inclusion therein by resolutions adopted at Habana. Among these are the regulation of the agricultural and industrial use of international rivers, the navigability of rivers, and the possibility of adopting a standard coin. On the two last-mentioned topics the Pan American Union has communicated with the Governments members of the Union, and the reports which may be received will serve as a basis of discussion at Montevideo. On the subject of the regulation of the industrial and agricultural use of international rivers, the program of the Seventh Conference contemplates the preparation and submission of a project by the Permanent Committee on International Law established at Rio de Janeiro. A topic on the condition and standards of living of workmen has been included in the program of the Seventh Conference pursuant to a resolution adopted at Habana, and the American Institute of International Law has been requested to formulate a project on the rights and duties of States, pursuant to the recommendation of the Sixth Conference that the fundamental bases of international law and of states be considered at Montevideo.

Notwithstanding the fact that they are not the direct result of action taken by Conferences of American States, mention should be made of some other Pan American events of outstanding importance which occurred during 1931. Among them was the renewal on August 17 of diplomatic relations between the Republics of Colombia and Ecuador, severed since November, 1923. This felicitous event came about through the good offices of the Argentine Government and its able diplomatic representatives in Quito and Bogotá, Dr. Atilio Daniel Barilari and Capt. Rodolfo Freyre, respectively. The second occurrence was the assembly in Washington on December 15, 1931, of the Arbitral Tribunal between Guatemala and Honduras, to terminate the boundary question which for almost a century has existed between these two neighboring Republics.<sup>3</sup>

Inter-American initiative in the field of finance was shown in the meeting of five South American Central Banks, held in Lima, in December, 1931, at the suggestion of the Central Bank of Bolivia.

<sup>3</sup> See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, February, 1932.

Observers from the Federal Reserve Bank of the United States were also present.<sup>4</sup>

Another interesting assemblage was the conference on economic subjects held between Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay, at the invitation and in the capital of the last-named Republic.<sup>5</sup>

#### DEPOSIT OF RATIFICATIONS

One of the new functions intrusted to the Pan American Union at the Sixth International Conference was that of serving as a depository of the ratifications of conventions signed at the Conference. A provision to this effect appears in the convention on the Pan American Union, and notwithstanding that the articles of the convention do not become effective until ratified by all the countries members of the Union, nine of the conventions signed at Habana provide that the Pan American Union shall be the depository of the ratifications and shall notify the other signatory States of the receipt of the ratifications. The present status of the conventions signed at the Sixth International Conference is as follows:

##### CONVENTION ON THE STATUS OF ALIENS

<i>Ratified by:</i>	<i>Ratification deposited</i>
Brazil.....	September 3, 1929.
Colombia.....	(Not yet deposited.)
Guatemala.....	September 25, 1931.
Mexico.....	March 28, 1931.
Nicaragua.....	March 20, 1930.
Panama.....	May 21, 1929.
United States.....	May 21, 1930.

##### CONVENTION ON ASYLUM

<i>Ratified by:</i>	<i>Ratification deposited</i>
Brazil.....	September 3, 1929.
Colombia.....	(Not yet deposited.)
Cuba.....	May 4, 1931.
Guatemala.....	September 25, 1931.
Mexico.....	February 6, 1929.
Nicaragua.....	March 20, 1930.
Panama.....	May 21, 1929.

##### CONVENTION ON CONSULAR AGENTS

<i>Ratified by:</i>	<i>Ratification deposited</i>
Brazil.....	September 3, 1929.
Colombia.....	(Not yet deposited.)
Mexico.....	December 26, 1929.
Nicaragua.....	March 20, 1930.
Panama.....	May 21, 1929.
United States.....	February 8, 1932.

<sup>4</sup> See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, March, 1932.

<sup>5</sup> See pp. 291.

## CONVENTION ON DIPLOMATIC OFFICERS

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratification deposited
Brazil.....	September 3, 1929.
Mexico.....	February 6, 1929.
Nicaragua.....	June 9, 1930.
Panama.....	May 21, 1929.
Venezuela (Approved by Congress but not yet ratified by the President).	

## CONVENTION ON MARITIME NEUTRALITY

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratification deposited
Bolivia.....	March 9, 1932.
Colombia.....	(Not yet deposited.)
Nicaragua.....	January 12, 1931.
Panama.....	May 21, 1929.
United States.....	March 22, 1932.

## CONVENTION ON THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratification deposited
Brazil.....	August 9, 1929.
Dominican Republic.....	March 12, 1929.
Guatemala.....	April 30, 1930.
Mexico.....	February 6, 1929.
Panama.....	May 21, 1929.
United States.....	March 18, 1931.
Venezuela (Approved by Congress but not yet ratified by the President).	

## CONVENTION ON PRIVATE INTERNATIONAL LAW

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratification deposited
Bolivia.....	March 9, 1932.
Brazil.....	August 3, 1929.
Costa Rica.....	February 27, 1930.
Cuba.....	April 20, 1928.
Dominican Republic.....	March 12, 1929.
El Salvador.....	November 13, 1931.
Guatemala.....	November 9, 1929.
Haiti.....	February 6, 1930.
Honduras.....	May 20, 1930.
Nicaragua.....	February 28, 1930.
Panama.....	October 26, 1928.
Peru.....	August 19, 1929.
Venezuela.....	March 11, 1932.
Chile (Approved by Congress).	

## CONVENTION ON THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF STATES IN THE EVENT OF CIVIL STRIFE

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratification deposited
Brazil.....	September 3, 1929.
Colombia.....	(Not yet deposited.)
Mexico.....	February 6, 1929.
Nicaragua.....	March 20, 1930.
Panama.....	May 21, 1929.
United States.....	May 21, 1930.

## CONVENTION ON TREATIES

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratification deposited
Brazil.....	September 3, 1929.
Nicaragua.....	January 12, 1931.
Panama.....	May 21, 1929.

## CONVENTION ON COMMERCIAL AVIATION

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratifications deposited with the Government of Cuba
Guatemala.....	December 28, 1929.
Mexico.....	April 24, 1929.
Nicaragua.....	May 4, 1929.
Panama.....	May 13, 1929.
United States.....	July 17, 1931.

## CONVENTION ON THE PROTECTION OF LITERARY AND ARTISTIC PROPERTY

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratification deposited
Guatemala.....	May 20, 1931
	Date of ratification
Panama.....	May 13, 1929.

The ratifications of the treaties and conventions signed at the special conferences growing out of the Sixth International Conference of American States have been as follows:

## TREATY OF INTER-AMERICAN ARBITRATION

(Signed at the International Conference of American States on Conciliation and Arbitration at Washington, January, 1929)

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratifications deposited with the Government of the United States
Brazil.....	January 25, 1932.
Chile.....	February 27, 1930.
Cuba.....	November 8, 1930.
Dominican Republic.....	September 17, 1929.
El Salvador.....	December 28, 1929.
Guatemala.....	October 28, 1929.
Mexico.....	January 8, 1930.
Panama.....	(Not yet deposited.)
Peru (Ratified by Congress).	
United States.....	(Not yet deposited.)

## CONVENTION ON INTER-AMERICAN CONCILIATION

(Signed at the International Conference of American States on Conciliation and Arbitration at Washington, January, 1929)

<i>Ratified by:</i>	Ratifications deposited with the Government of Chile
Chile.....	December 28, 1929.
Colombia.....	(Not yet deposited.)
Cuba.....	August 7, 1930.
El Salvador.....	December 28, 1929.
Guatemala.....	November 15, 1929.
Mexico.....	January 8, 1930.
Panama.....	(Not yet deposited.)
Peru (Ratified by Congress but ratification not yet deposited).	
United States.....	March 27, 1929.
Venezuela (Approved by Congress but not yet ratified by the President).	

## INTER-AMERICAN CONVENTION ON TRADE-MARK AND COMMERCIAL PROTECTION

(Signed at the Pan American Trade Mark Conference at Washington February 20, 1929)

*Ratified by:*

Cuba.....	Ratifications deposited with the Pan American Union April 2, 1930.
Guatemala.....	December 30, 1929.
Haiti.....	August 14, 1931.
United States.....	February 17, 1931.

## PROTOCOL ON THE INTER-AMERICAN REGISTRATION OF TRADE MARKS

(Signed at the Pan American Trade Mark Conference at Washington, February 20, 1929)

*Ratified by:*

Cuba.....	Ratifications deposited with the Pan American Union April 2, 1930.
Haiti.....	August 14, 1931.
United States.....	February 17, 1931.

## CONVENTION ON THE REGULATION OF AUTOMOTIVE TRAFFIC

(Signed at the Pan American Conference on the Regulation of Automotive Traffic at Washington, October 6, 1930)

*Ratified by:*

Mexico.....	Ratification deposited February 23, 1932.
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# PAN AMERICAN STUDENT CLUBS

By HELOISE BRAINERD

*Chief, Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union*

THE clubs that are found in many high schools and colleges of the United States having as their purpose the study of international relations are at the same time an evidence of the growing "international-mindedness" of the American people and one of the factors that are bringing about that attitude. Among these groups may be mentioned the International Relations Clubs affiliated with the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; the World League of International Education Associations, with headquarters at San Francisco; and the Los Angeles City Federation of World Friendship Clubs. Many colleges, too, have organizations, such as the Cosmopolitan Clubs, composed of both American and foreign students, through which the members have an opportunity to become better acquainted with each other. A similar service is rendered by the "International Houses" at New York City, Chicago, and Berkeley. In this connection mention should be made of the strong interest taken by the National Student Federation of America in international affairs.

The special importance to the United States of inter-American relationships is so self-evident that as far back as 1920 a Pan American Student League, having Latin American student federations represented in its membership, was organized in New York under the leadership of Mr. Philip Leonard Green. This association did valuable work during the years of its existence. In 1927 a group of high-school teachers in Dallas, Texas, headed by Miss Fletcher Ryan Wickham, launched a new Pan American League among the students of Spanish in that city. Regular meetings have been held, with addresses by various distinguished Latin Americans, plays given in Spanish by the students, Spanish music and other features by which the members have learned a great deal about their Latin American neighbors and much impetus has been given to the study of Spanish. A yearbook is issued annually. Furthermore, beginning with the present term an annual award, to be known as the Bolívar-San Martín Medal, will be given in each high school having a Pan American Club as a chapter of the Pan American Student League of New York to the student who, in the opinion of the Faculty Leader, has contributed most to the advancement of the Pan American ideal in his school. This award is made by the Pan American Society of the

United States with headquarters in New York under the auspices of the Pan American Student League of that city.

From the beginning the Pan American League contemplated a nation-wide and eventually a Pan American membership. It now has several high-school and college chapters besides the original one at Dallas, and is looking forward to the establishment, before long, of chapters in the Latin American countries.

Among the most enterprising of the chapters are those in the high schools of New York City. The first of these was organized in September, 1930, in the James Monroe High School, by Mr. Joshua Hochstein, a member of the faculty. A year later Mr. Hochstein, who had been transferred to the DeWitt Clinton High School, organized one there. These clubs became chapters of the Pan American League with headquarters at Dallas. Mr. Hochstein began an energetic campaign in the other New York high schools, with the backing of school officials, and was so successful that on December 19, 1931, 17 clubs—one composed of alumni—came together and formed the Pan American Student League of New York City. The League now has a 4-page organ, "The Pan American Student." The clubs are taking advantage of the extraordinary facilities offered by their city, such as the foreign consulates, the large Spanish and Portuguese speaking colonies, the Pan American Society of the United States, and other organizations having Pan American interests, and are putting on most interesting programs. Among the special features have been a lecture by a noted Cuban caricaturist and an illustrated address by the Peruvian Consul on the development of Peru. The DeWitt Clinton Club has a Pan American section in the library in which, besides many books and pamphlets, some 75 newspapers and journals from Latin America are found, and has planned a special Latin American Exhibition to be held in April. The New York City clubs are open not only to students of Spanish but to all who are interested in Latin America.

It should be mentioned here that the Pan American clubs are not interested exclusively in the countries of Spanish speech, since their members are well aware that the Haitians, in their beautiful mountainous republic, speak French, and that Portuguese is the language of the Brazilians throughout their country, more vast in extent than the 48 States of the American Union.

The young people who compose these Pan American clubs are carrying on a very important piece of work. They are learning to understand and appreciate their Latin American neighbors and will grow up with an intelligent attitude in what is becoming the most important sphere of the United States' foreign relations. May they have the enthusiastic support not only of educational authorities but of all who have vision to see the possibilities of this Pan American "youth movement."

# AGRICULTURAL COOPERATION IN THE AMERICAS

By ADAM CARTER

*Member of the Pan American Union Staff*

THE development of agricultural cooperation holds a prominent place among the important Pan American events of recent years. Many agricultural problems are common to all the nations of the Continent, who find it mutually profitable to give the utmost publicity possible to all progress in solving such questions.

In 1928, a Permanent Committee on Agriculture was appointed by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, and a Division of Agricultural Cooperation was established in the Union. Since that time, the amount of information collected and distributed by the Division, and the innumerable subjects which have engaged its attention, bear witness to its usefulness, even if the nature of the work done does not allow results to be measured in terms of dollars and cents.

Educational activities naturally rank high in the work of agricultural cooperation. The dissemination of information forms a considerable part of these activities, and the agricultural subjects that can be covered by the written word are as numerous as the results may be fruitful. For instance, many varieties of crops produced in certain regions can be adapted to others, and knowledge of the improvements made in one country in some of the existing species used to advantage by the agriculturists of other nations. Cultivation methods, the use of fertilizers, discoveries made in connection with the diseases and pests of plants and animals, and animal husbandry are also suitable material for publicity. And if all this can be said in general terms, it may be taken for granted that there are innumerable individual cases in which an increase in knowledge means also an increase in profit.

The Division also makes a point of obtaining data on the agricultural conditions and developments in each member nation of the Pan American Union, said data being kept available to the general public. Furthermore, the office studies continental problems in agriculture, collaborates with experts in the various countries, and obtains for publication in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union articles on some of the multiple aspects of the cultivation, production, and distribution of the staples that in many cases are a source of great wealth. In brief, a center of agricultural cooperation.



A FIELD OF PINEAPPLES

Pineapples are imported by the United States from Cuba, Mexico, and Central America.



EXPERIMENTAL RICE GROWING, PALMIRA

Various Latin American countries are making special efforts to promote the growing of this important cereal, which is much better adapted than wheat to tropical and subtropical climates. This is a field at the Agricultural Experiment Station, Palmira, Cauca Valley, Colombia.

The following examples show the great diversity of the subjects with which the Division of Agricultural Cooperation has occupied itself: Matters pertaining to the control of the pests and diseases of plants and animals; improvement of the principal existing crops; propagation of new varieties; irrigation problems; soil study and analysis; fertilizers; insecticides; modern methods for the control of cattle diseases; improvement of breeds of cattle and adaptation of breeds to certain regions of the continent; scientific feeding of stock; development of the poultry industry; cereals and cereal products; cover crops; and analysis of woods.

Mention of a few titles will show the wide variety of agricultural matters covered by the series of pamphlets published regularly in Spanish and Portuguese by the Division and distributed among the agriculturists in the countries south of the United States: *Agricultural Progress in Latin America*; *Some Aspects of Coffee Raising*; *Cattle Parasites in Latin America*; *Fertilizing: A New Science*; *The Dairy Industry*; *Propagation of Citrus Fruits in Brazil*; and *Diseases of Cacao in the Caribbean Zone*. These articles are frequently reproduced, wholly or in part, in some of the most important agricultural publications appearing in Latin America.

The development of intercourse among the agricultural organizations established throughout Pan America is another avenue through which educational work is now being performed. In Latin America alone, there are at the present time about 300 periodicals which deal with agricultural matters; more than 700 agricultural societies; more than 200 experiment stations, and approximately 250 agricultural educational institutions. The establishment of friendly relations between these organizations multiplies the beneficial results of their activities, changing their sphere of action from national to continental. The Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union keeps up to date, and has distributed widely in Spanish and Portuguese, a list of these organizations and institutions. The Division has also prepared and published in three languages a bibliographical compilation entitled *Selected List of Publications on Tropical Agriculture*. Copies of laws, regulations, and similar material on the prevention and eradication of cattle diseases were requested and received from many governments, and many publications on that subject have been prepared, compiled, and distributed. In many cases, the Department of Agriculture of the United States has furnished, through the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union, educational films to be used by various agricultural institutions in Latin America.

In September, 1930, the first Inter-American Conference on Agriculture met at the Pan American Union. The numerous scientific contributions presented to the Conference were published in three

languages and distributed extensively throughout the Americas. Many of the resolutions adopted outlined the course to be followed in the development of agricultural cooperation in the New World.

It may be of interest to mention a few of the many agricultural activities influenced by the Conference. As a result of its decisions the Committees on Agricultural Cooperation existing in all the Pan American nations have begun the study of prevailing agricultural conditions and it is expected that their conclusions and recommendations will be submitted to the Seventh International Conference of American States.

National agricultural congresses have been held in various Latin American countries, and have proven to be of great educational and commercial value.



FIELD FOR HENEQUEN DRYING

After extraction, the fiber is washed and hung on wires for drying, bleaching, and combing. It is widely used in the United States for the making of various twines and ropes. Henequen, or sisal, is grown extensively in Yucatan.

Reports on insect pests and on plant diseases are being received from various American countries and distributed by the Division of Agricultural Cooperation. This office is also preparing an agricultural nomenclature, and has already compiled more than 2,000 terms, with equivalents in Spanish and English, comprising sections devoted to various classes of soils; insects; plant and animal diseases; fungus diseases; agricultural machinery; forestry; agricultural engineering; bacteriology; and chemistry. When this nomenclature is completed, it will be published and distributed throughout the Americas.

To conclude this reference to some of the many phases of agricultural enterprise which have felt the influence of the work of the Conference on Agriculture, it may be said that because of the efforts of that assembly a great deal of attention is now being given in Latin

America to forest and soil surveys. The conclusions reached by the Conference on these points have served to emphasize the great importance of such surveys, and to increase noticeably the number being made throughout the nations of the Continent.

The Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union maintains close relations with all Pan American agricultural bodies in general, and in particular with the National Committees on Agricultural Cooperation. Part of the work of these Committees consists in reporting to the Pan American Union, every three months, upon the most important agricultural events that have taken place in their respective countries during that period. At the request of the Division of Agricultural Cooperation, the members of these committees have in many cases prepared special reports on subjects pertaining to agriculture and animal husbandry. All these data are at the disposal of any organizations or private individuals from any part of Pan America who may request them; they will also serve in the preparation of the program of the Second Pan American Conference of Agriculture.

The cooperation of the agricultural departments, experiment stations, botanical gardens, and agricultural educational organizations of the various nations has greatly aided the Pan American Division of Agricultural Cooperation. Likewise the cooperation of the United States Department of Agriculture has been exceedingly helpful to many official and private correspondents of the Division in Latin America, on account of the vast facilities at the disposal of that Department, and the promptness with which it has always answered requests from the Division of Agriculture of the Pan American Union. These services on the part of the United States Department of Agriculture are well known and widely appreciated in Latin America.

Besides maintaining close relations with the agricultural organizations established in the various countries, the Division of Agricultural Cooperation is also in contact with many individuals, as its services are at the disposal of the general public. The number of private persons who have requested information from the Division runs into the thousands, as is shown by the respective card index.

Requests are constantly being received from organizations and individuals in all of Pan America. The following may be mentioned as examples of the more important subjects upon which concrete data have lately been furnished:

In a certain region of Peru, a variety of barley was introduced which can be harvested in three and a half months. The varieties formerly planted there were harvested in from six to seven months. The seed obtained from the first crop of the new variety was distributed among interested farmers.



AGRICULTURAL EXPERIMENT STATION, SAN JACINTO, ARGENTINA

Field demonstration showing the results of wheat seed disinfection.



A VANILLA PLANTATION

Mexico is one of the leading producing countries in the world of vanilla beans, her principal competitors being the French and Dutch tropical island possessions.



Seed of six varieties of wheat grown in the United States was sent to be planted in Venezuela, and the results obtained were highly satisfactory. With the seed were sent the necessary data on its cultivation and production.

The Division has obtained and sent to Venezuela and Ecuador seed of several varieties of sugar cane from Porto Rico.

Until recently, the cultivation of soy beans in a certain Peruvian region had proven practically impossible due to the fact that the seed employed was not properly inoculated. At the request of the national government, the Division sent a sufficient amount of eight of the main soy bean varieties produced in the United States, together with the necessary cultures for the inoculation of the seed.<sup>1</sup> It is expected that satisfactory results will now be obtained.

Several varieties of grape vines cultivated in the United States were sent to the National Agricultural Center at San Jose, Costa Rica, to be planted there. The Director of that institution recently advised the Union that acclimatization had been successfully accomplished. The outcome of this experiment will undoubtedly serve to develop the cultivation of those varieties in Costa Rica.

It should be stated that all the seed, trees, and propagation material furnished have been certified by the authorities as free from disease and pests, assurance being thus given that no new infections will be introduced into the country of destination.

Detailed information on the organization and functions of the United States Weather Bureau was furnished to the Government of Colombia, to be used by that Government in the reorganization of its own bureau. A correspondent in the Department of Bolivar of that same nation wished to irrigate some rather extensive rice fields with water from the Sinú River. The fields were situated at a level considerably higher than that of the river, it being therefore necessary to raise the water by means of pumps. The correspondent was given all necessary facts on the various irrigation systems that might be employed under the existing conditions and on appropriate types of machinery. The Union was recently advised that work was proceeding in accordance with the instructions given.

In a section of Costa Rica, the roots of the plants cultivated were being destroyed by a certain disease. The Division of Agriculture undertook to have the soil analyzed, and once the microbe responsible

<sup>1</sup> The successful growth of every leguminous plant is dependent upon certain microscopic bacteria living on its roots, which draw nitrogen from the air and store it in nodules on the plant roots for the use of the plant. Inoculation, in connection with legumes, means supplying the soil with the type of bacteria necessary to aid the development of the particular kind of plant.

There are two ways of making the inoculation: 1, by inoculating the soil with soil taken from a field in which the legume had been growing, and 2, by using a pure culture. The pure culture is obtained by using a liquid medium into which the desired bacteria have been introduced and are growing. This culture is mixed with finely sifted soil and broadcast on the field, or, better still, the seed to be inoculated is placed in a pail or tub, the culture poured over it, and the whole stirred until each seed is thoroughly coated with the culture.—EDITOR.



#### FIELD OF SELECTED SOYBEANS CULTIVATED IN ROWS FOR PRODUCING SEEDS

This important cover crop is rapidly increasing its popularity in Latin America, having demonstrated its value in the protection, conservation, and rebuilding of soil.



Courtesy of the United States Department of Agriculture

#### A GOOD STAND OF BARLEY

A new type of barley, now being cultivated experimentally in Peru, is one of the grains recently introduced into Latin America from the United States. One of its chief advantages is its early maturity in three and a half months.

for the damage was identified, the necessary data for its destruction were communicated to the interested persons.

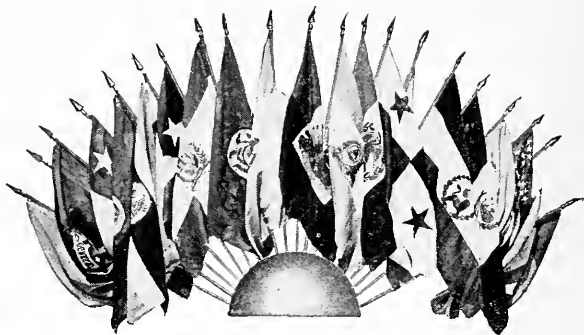
The Government of Venezuela desired information concerning methods for the importation and acclimatization of fine breeds of cattle. This advice was supplied and the Government placed in contact with some of the important breeders in the United States.

From time to time, also, information on some phase of Latin American agriculture is obtained for individuals or officials in the United States. Not long ago the Division secured from various Latin American countries detailed information on the subject of applied entomology as practiced in each of those countries; this was in answer to a request from an eminent entomologist of the United States Department of Agriculture who wished to incorporate the information in his projected world history of applied entomology. Since the author had previously had difficulty in getting information, the Division derived a particular satisfaction from its efforts in helping to secure and translate the needed data, later incorporated in the above-mentioned book.

Many persons interested in studying agricultural matters in various sections of the Continent have requested the assistance of the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union. Among them, the following may be mentioned: Agricultural experts from the United States who have visited or intend to visit certain Latin American countries; special groups or delegations from various parts of Latin America, interested in studying agricultural matters in the United States; and Latin American students coming to the United States.

In conclusion, it may be said that agricultural cooperation is now established in America upon a firm basis, and that it is highly beneficial to all the nations of the Continent. The great progress made in these activities in the comparatively short time that has elapsed since their inception shows how much may be accomplished in the future if there is no decline in the spirit of cooperation and mutual aid in agricultural matters now existing throughout Pan America.

If the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union is to intensify its work, it must enjoy as it has in the past, or in an even greater degree if possible, the approval and the assistance of all the Pan American agricultural organizations and of the individuals established in the twenty-one American Republics who take an interest in agriculture. It is among those organizations and those individuals, and for their profit, that agricultural cooperation exists, and if the Pan American Union is to keep up its work of coordination and development the growth of this spirit of cooperation must continue.



## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### THE GOVERNING BOARD

*Homage to Washington.*—The Governing Board met in special session on the morning of February 22 to commemorate the two hundredth anniversary of the birth of Washington. The session was held in the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union.

The vice chairman of the board, Hon. Orestes Ferrara, Ambassador of Cuba, made the address on behalf of his colleagues, to which the Secretary of State, Hon. Henry L. Stimson, chairman of the board, responded on behalf of the Government of the United States. Following the addresses a wreath was placed at the bust of Washington.

As a part of the exercises the Marine Band orchestra played a program of music. The ceremonies were broadcast over nation-wide chains throughout the United States and were also sent by short-wave to all the other countries of the American Continent.

A complete account of this session will be given in a future issue of the BULLETIN which will commemorate the bicentenary of the birth of Washington.

### COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Reading list on inter-American relations.*—The Library has just completed Number Seven of its Bibliographic Series under the title *Selected list of books and magazine articles on inter-American relations*, limited to books and magazine articles that should be readily available in any large library. The list is designed to be an aid to schools, women's clubs, travelers, students, and authors in the United States who desire to read more extensively on the relations between the Americas than may be done by consulting only one or two books on the subject. Copies are distributed gratis.

*Mexican art magazine.*—The first issue of *Nuestro México*, published for March, 1932, has reached the Library. This new monthly magazine appears under the directorship of Armando Vargas de la Maza, Avenida Juárez No. 88, Mexico City, and is a fine example of the printing art in that city. Comprising eighty pages, 9 by 12½ inches in size, it is profusely illustrated, and includes seven color plates. Reproductions of paintings by Diego Rivera, Montenegro, Leal, and of many photographs and drawings portraying Mexican life make this an outstanding art magazine. The articles are from the pens of Alfonso Toro, José Martínez Sotomayor, Baltazar Izaguirre Rojo, Enrique Fernández Ledesma, and others. The magazine is priced in the United States at 50 cents per copy.

*Accessions.*—Among the 150 accessions during the past month was a collection of 10 pamphlets by Dr. Antonio Serrano of the Normal School of Paraná, Argentina, on the natural history, archaeology and ethnology of that country, and six pamphlets by Dr. Aníbal Maúrtua, of Peru, on economic and political affairs in that republic. Some other publications received during the past month are as follows:

*Directorio industrial y comercial.* Publicado por Luis O. Peynado. Sanjo Domingo, Imprenta de J. R. Vda. García, 552 p. 8°.

*La crise de la codification et la doctrine argentine de droit international.* Por Carlos Saavedra Lamas. [Vol.] 1-2. Paris, Les Éditions Internationales, 1931. 2 vols.

*Congreso nacional de ingeniería.* Organizado por la Asociación Politécnica del Uruguay y patrocinado por la Comisión Nacional del Centenario. 14-21 de Marzo de 1931, Montevideo. Montevideo, Lit. y Imp. del Comercio, 1931. 463 p. illus. 4°.

*Greater America, an interpretation of Latin America in relation to Anglo-Saxon America.* By Wallace Thompson. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc. 1932. 275 p. 8°.

*Derecho internacional público* (Curso universitario). Por Alberto Ulloa. . . Tomo 2°. Lima, Talleres Gráficos Sanmartí y Cía., 1929. 466 p. 8°.

*Panorama de la literatura chilena durante el siglo XX.* Por "Alone." Santiago de Chile, Editorial Nascimento, 1931. 181 p. 12°.

*Crónicas de Valparaíso.* Por Benjamín Vicuña Mackenna. Valparaíso, Imprenta Victoria, 1931. 239 p. 12°.

*International legislation.* A collection of the texts of multipartite international instruments of general interest beginning with the covenant of the League of Nations. Edited by Manley O. Hudson. Vol. 1, 1919-1931. Vol. 2, 1922-1924. Washington, Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 1931. 2 vols.

In addition to the magazine *Nuestro México* mentioned elsewhere the library has received for the first time the following periodicals:

*Arquitectura e Construções* (Orgão oficial do Instituto Paulista de Architectos), São Paulo, Brasil. (M.) Vol. 2, No. 23, Novembro, 1931. 30 p. illus. 7¼ x 10½ inches.

*Revista da Academia Sergipana de Letras*, Rua de Pacatuba, N. 110, Aracajú, Sergipe, Brasil. (M.) Anno 1, No. 1. Novembro, 1931. 100 p. illus. 6 x 9 inches.

*Revista Postal* (Órgano oficial del Correo Nacional de El Salvador, C. A.), San Salvador. (M.) Año 1, No. 1. Julio, 1931. 40 p. illus.  $8\frac{1}{4}$  x 12 inches.

*Revista del Distrito Nacional* (Órgano del Comité Ejecutivo del Distrito Nacional, para dar a conocer la labor de su administración). Managua, Nicaragua. Año 1, No. 1. Diciembre 30, 1930. 71 p. 6 x  $8\frac{1}{2}$  inches.

*Universidad* (Publicado por el Departamento de Extensión Cultural de la Universidad Mayor de San Marcos), Lima, Peru. (M.) Año 1, No. 1. Septiembre, 1931. 16 p. illus. 10 x 14 inches.

*Revista Postal de Guatemala* (Órgano del Servicio de Correos, Ministerio de Fomento). Guatemala. (M.) Año 3, No. 26. Octubre de 1931. 12 p.  $7\frac{1}{2}$  x  $10\frac{1}{2}$  inches.

*Ordo* (Revista de Derecho, Jurisprudencia y Legislación). Maracaibo, Venezuela. (M.) Tomo 1, No. 1. Enero 31, 1932. 32 p. 6 x 9 inches.

*Revista Postal y Telegráfica Boliviana* (Órgano oficial de la Dirección General), La Paz, Bolivia. (M.) Año 1, No. 1. Enero, 1932. 64 p. illus.  $7\frac{1}{4}$  x 10 inches.

*Santo Domingo y Puerto Rico* (Quincenario ilustrado). San Juan, Puerto Rico. Año 1, No. 9. Febrero 15, 1932. 16 p. illus.  $8\frac{3}{4}$  x  $11\frac{3}{4}$  inches.

*Resumen* (Un periódico diferente—publicado por la Compañía Editora "La Razón", S. A.). México, D. F. Tomo 3º, No. 25. Noviembre 4, 1931. 48 p. illus.  $8\frac{1}{2}$  x 11 inches.



# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## FINANCE, INDUSTRY, AND COMMERCE

*The Montevideo Economic Conference.*—At the invitation of His Excellency, Dr. Gabriel Terra, President of URUGUAY, delegates from ARGENTINA and BRAZIL met at Montevideo on December 15, 1931, to discuss bilateral trade agreements concerning the interchange of products between those two countries and URUGUAY and to study the possibility of an agreement between the three countries for joint action in the promotion of their meat packing industry.

At the inaugural session of the conference, after formally welcoming the delegates, President Terra outlined in general the purposes of the meeting. "This conference," he said, "has no other aim than to secure for the economic life of our people the practical application of the principles of cooperation. . . . The idea and the purpose are not extraneous or novel, but constitute the very essence of economic Pan Americanism. . . . As a representative of my country to the Washington financial congress I had the honor of . . . suggesting the advisability of the American Republics granting reciprocal custom facilities and adopting other measures tending to facilitate the export of surplus production. This measure, Pan American customs reciprocity in defense of our industries, I said then, was necessary as the first and most logical step in continental economic policy in order to correct the evils of exaggerated nationalism. . . . The truth of this statement remains unaltered. The economic health of these countries depends on the maintenance and progressive development of our industries."

In advocating a freer interchange between Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay President Terra recalled the example of the United States, which he believes owes its greatness to free trade among the States. He also believes that these nations should unite in the defense of their export trade in products common to all three "not to establish unjust impositions, but in order to obtain equitable compensation for the labor which produces these goods, and thus promote the welfare of the rural workers, who to-day do not earn enough to establish homes and support their families."

President Terra added that no sentiment of hostility toward other continents should be inferred from the actions of the conference. "We are persuaded," he said, "that the best manner to serve the

interests of the international community consists in seeking the highest possible development of each nation, so that all will be in a position to offer the largest possible contribution to human civilization. . . . Interdependence will always exist, and it can be only helpful and beneficial to Europe if these new countries enlarge their consuming power by increasing their prosperity. European countries are our best customers. We can not pretend to sell them our products without buying from them."

The President emphasized the fact that the limitation of the conference to Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay in no way meant lack of confidence in the more general idea of Pan Americanism. The Planet proposal <sup>1</sup> he believes was probably not carried through because it sought to include too great an area. "Inside the community of continental interests," he explained, "there exist particular or regional problems, determined by certain economic characteristics or geographical positions. The solution of these problems can only facilitate the wider task of including under the same principles all the republics of America."

The conference in Montevideo was organized into three commissions: One under the chairmanship of Dr. Joaquim Eulalio Nascimento Silva, of Brazil, to study the bases for a trade agreement between Uruguay and Brazil; another headed by Dr. Carlos M. Mayer, of Argentina, to discuss the removal of barriers in trade between that country and Uruguay; and a third, of which Dr. Horacio N. Bruzzone, of Argentina, and Dr. Francisco Rodolpho Simch, of Brazil, were chairman and vice chairman respectively, to study the possibilities for joint action by the three countries in the promotion of their meat industry. The agenda of the latter commission contained four principal topics: The opening of new markets and the recovery of lost ones, the establishment of State-owned packing houses to control prices, joint advertising in consuming countries, and the creation

<sup>1</sup> On June 23, 1931, Señor Antonio Planet, then Minister of Foreign Affairs of Chile, made a statement urging the Latin American nations to call a conference to combat economic depression, take up the idea of a customs union, move to aid the unemployed, and formulate a joint policy on the limitation of armaments. In contrast to Señor Planet's proposal of a Latin American customs union, proposals for more restricted economic unions, of varying groups of nations in the southern continent, have for several years been advanced by prominent South American economists.

Señor Alejandro E. Bunge, of Argentina, advocates the formation of a customs union between Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Paraguay and Uruguay. To carry this plan into effect he suggests that a convention containing the following features be adopted at a conference attended by representatives of the five countries concerned: 1.—A single customs tariff for the five nations among themselves with respect to outside countries; 2.—A reduction of 20 per cent annually in customs duties among the five nations, which would thus disappear in four years; 3.—A duration for the customs convention of 20 years, with the possibility of its renewal. In Chile, Señor Guillermo Subercaseaux sponsors an economic union between Bolivia, Chile, and Peru, with the object of making more effective the commercial relations uniting those nations, and Señor Eliodoro Yañez, also of Chile, recommends in addition to a single tariff with respect to outside countries and free trade with one another, the formation of a monetary union to eliminate the problems of exchange between the countries constituting the customs union.



of a permanent commission for the protection of the industry. On December 30 the delegates met to sign an agreement recommending to their governments that they organize strict control of the meat-packing business in each republic, such control to serve as the possible basis of future joint action through a permanent commission composed of two delegates from each of the three countries. The conference considered the organization of this commission an urgent matter and recommended that the respective Governments organize it at their earliest convenience.

The Brazilian and Uruguayan delegations unanimously approved suggestions for a commercial treaty between the two countries which have already been submitted to the respective governments. The proposed treaty is of a reciprocal nature but it is understood to contain a most-favored-nation clause. Several of its clauses aim to facilitate the handling of transit trade. By one of them Uruguay is to grant free warehousing for Brazilian goods in transit, this privilege to continue for one year after the signing of the treaty. Uruguay is to grant the minimum rate for loading and unloading Brazilian goods in the Port of Montevideo, and merchandise or products from the Brazilian state of Matto Grosso sent down the Paraná-Paraguay River system and consigned to Brazilian Atlantic ports will be considered as goods in transit. Reciprocal treatment is to be accorded vessels of both nations.

The treaty also proposes the establishment as an experiment of reciprocal duty-free importation of certain products, the list of which includes manioc meal; livestock for breeding purposes; farm products such as chickens and other fowls, cheese, eggs, milk, etc.; maize, linseed, oats, barley; oleaginous seeds; and plants and leaves for coloring and dyeing. In addition to the foregoing free list, it is suggested that the following quotas be admitted free of duty when entering either country across the land frontier only, which limits the quotas, as far as Brazil is concerned, to the State of Rio Grande do Sul: 10,000 metric tons of wheat or its equivalent, 7,000 metric tons of flour; 4,000 metric tons of potatoes; 8,000 tons of Brazilian pine boards and planks; 200,000 head of cattle for fattening or slaughtering. Brazil will admit free of duty 4,000 metric tons of jerked beef when destined for Pernambuco or ports north of there. This concession it is said would provide a market for about 40,000 head of Uruguayan cattle per annum. It is proposed that the list of articles on the free list and on the quota list be revised annually by a joint commission. The appointment of three other permanent joint commissions is recommended as follows:

A railway commission to recommend freight reductions or adjustments designed to increase the rail traffic between the two countries;

a commission of veterinarians to study especially the diseases of cattle in the region of the Brazilian-Uruguayan frontier and to recommend sanitary measures; and a commission for the suppression of smuggling.

Brazil exports to Uruguay yerba maté, cattle, coffee, tobacco, bananas, rice, pine wood, manioc meal, and cacao and in return receives principally Uruguayan wheat and wheat flour, jerked beef, and live cattle. The value of this trade, according to Uruguayan statistics, is shown in the following table:

*Foreign trade of Uruguay with Brazil*

Year	Imports <sup>1</sup> (tariff values)	Per cent of total Uruguayan imports	Exports (real values)	Per cent of total Uruguayan exports
	<i>Pesos</i> <sup>2</sup>		<i>Pesos</i>	
1926.....	3,843,421	5.18	4,360,995	4.62
1927.....	4,427,172	5.41	4,454,009	4.62
1928.....	4,727,070	5.03	4,706,517	4.65
1929.....	4,618,521	4.87	2,763,650	2.98
1930.....	7,474,917	8.37	3,252,777	3.22
1931 (January to September).....	5,543,545	8.55	614,661	1.06

<sup>1</sup> According to Brazilian statistics Uruguay is credited with a much higher value of imports of Brazilian merchandise than is shown in the Uruguayan trade figures. Since the ultimate destination of merchandise exported is not always ascertainable, the destination of Brazilian exports is given as that specified in the manifests of ocean-going vessels cleared at Brazilian ports. Thus merchandise exported from the States of Matto Grosso and Rio Grande do Sul to be reshipped from Montevideo to European and other ports is credited to Uruguay.

<sup>2</sup> The Uruguayan gold peso at par is worth \$1.04 in U.S. currency. Average exchange rate: In 1926, \$1.014; in 1927, \$1.013; in 1928, \$1.026; in 1929, \$0.986; in 1930, \$0.858, and in 1931, \$0.554.

The Argentine-Uruguayan commission worked on a commercial treaty providing for a reduction of one-half of the Uruguayan import duty on Argentine fruit in exchange for the duty-free entry into Argentina of Uruguayan cattle; means to prevent smuggling; and Argentine import duty concessions on Uruguayan stone, flowers, and fish in return for Uruguayan duty reductions on Argentine newspapers and magazines. No definite agreement had been reached between the Argentine and Uruguayan delegates when the Argentine delegates returned to Buenos Aires at the end of December; on February 1, 1932, negotiations were resumed for a time but no definite results have as yet been announced.

The trade of Uruguay with Argentina consists principally in an interchange of Argentine potatoes, cattle, quebracho extract, charcoal, and corn for Uruguayan stone, sand, and cattle. The value of Uruguay's foreign trade with Argentina during the last six years (according to Uruguayan statistics) and the percentage that this interchange represents in the total foreign trade of Uruguay is shown by the table appended below. As in the case of Uruguay's foreign trade with Brazil, Uruguayan and Argentine trade figures are not comparable. The statistical reports of the former country show

higher exports than those credited to her in the reports of the latter, a large number of "to order" shipments apparently being included in the Uruguayan trade figures as exports to Argentina.

*Foreign trade of Uruguay with Argentina*

Year	Imports (tariff values)	Per cent of total Uruguayan imports	Exports (real values)	Per cent of total Uruguayan exports
	<i>Pesos</i>		<i>Pesos</i>	
1926.....	7,238,422	9.76	8,640,582	9.16
1927.....	9,140,736	11.17	12,679,830	13.15
1928.....	8,032,070	8.54	16,610,137	16.41
1929.....	7,752,900	8.18	11,611,792	12.51
1930.....	8,757,281	9.80	12,452,121	12.34
1931 (January to September).....	7,722,266	11.91	7,590,744	13.12

*Yerba Maté Conference.*—Before the return of the Argentine delegates to Montevideo, another trade parley was opened in Buenos Aires on January 25, 1932, where at the invitation of the Government of ARGENTINA delegates of BRAZIL and PARAGUAY met to discuss the yerba maté question. To protect local producers an Argentine decree, issued on March 14, 1931, restricted the importation of yerba maté to 60,000 metric tons per annum in allotments of 5,000 tons per month, and a measure enacted on August 11 of the same year established certain sanitary regulations in regard to the importation of this product. Yerba maté is one of the principal items in the trade of Brazil and Paraguay with Argentina, and the Argentine restrictions against this commodity led to Brazilian restrictions against Argentine wheat and flour. The object of the meeting was to examine the point of view of the three countries in respect to this matter and through a series of informal conversations open the way for a friendly agreement.

The views of the Brazilian and Paraguayan delegations were summarized in two separate statements presented to the conference. After the two delegations had an opportunity to examine and discuss each other's proposals, the statements were studied by the Argentine delegation which, with the aid of an advisory committee composed of representatives of the leading commercial and agricultural associations interested in the yerba maté trade, prepared a statement which was presented to the Brazilian and Paraguayan delegates at the closing session of the conference on February 6, 1932. This statement contains the measures which the Argentine delegation recommends to the Ministry of Agriculture, so that this department in cooperation with the Ministries of Finance and Foreign Affairs may issue the necessary regulations to carry them into effect. The Argentine delegation recommends the abrogation of the system of import quotas

established by the decree issued on March 14, 1931, in lieu of which it proposes an increase of the existing import duties on this commodity, which it considers low, and the establishment of an internal tax on all yerba maté which does not contain a certain percentage of the locally grown product. The statement that the duties "should be increased according to a plan of reciprocity which will permit their graduation" has been interpreted to mean that the rates will be fixed on a cost-of-production basis. The Argentine delegation is in favor of keeping in force the sanitary regulations instituted by the decree issued on August 11, 1931.

*Other Economic Conferences.*—At the suggestion of the Minister of Paraguay in Buenos Aires, His Excellency Dr. Vicente Rivarola, delegates of ARGENTINA and PARAGUAY met at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Buenos Aires on February 17, 1932, to inaugurate a conference which is to study the commercial interchange between these two countries. Señores Alejandro E. Bunge, Alfredo Lucadamo, Luis Colombo, Pablo Della Costa, Ernesto Aguirre, Javier Padilla, and Isidoro Ruiz Moreno represent Argentina, the Paraguayan delegation being composed of the Minister in Buenos Aires, and Señores Manuel Benitez, Juan B. Gaona, Alberto de los Rios, and Ismael Candia. A decree issued by the Argentine Government on February 19 also appoints a commission which will meet with a delegation from BOLIVIA to study measures for the promotion of their reciprocal trade.

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## IMMIGRATION RESTRICTIONS

Considering the necessity for doing everything possible to prevent an increase in the ranks of the unemployed, several of the Caribbean countries have recently passed legislation further restricting immigration.

On November 30, 1931, a decree was issued by Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, First Designate in charge of the national executive power of PANAMA, prohibiting the entrance of all immigrants not traveling first class. All persons traveling first class must have their passports visaed by a Panamanian consul, furnish proof that they are able to support themselves and any dependents in their company, and have at least 500 balboas if they are traveling alone and an additional 250 balboas for each person accompanying them. Persons passing through Panama will be required to surrender their passports to the immigration authorities in exchange for an identification card for use while they are in the country; the passport will be returned when

they are ready to proceed on their journey. These provisions apply to persons intending to remain longer than 30 days.

Exception will be made, however, in the case of persons traveling on scientific missions, members of theatrical troupes having duly authorized permits, officials of foreign governments, employees of the Panama Railway, patients coming for treatment in Panamanian hospitals, and students whose purpose is attested by the proper documents. Persons who are under contract for professional services with firms within the country and whose entrance meets the approval of the Department of Foreign Relations, wives, and minor children of persons who are already resident in the country and can prove their ability to maintain them, and tourists continuing on the same ship or having their return tickets are likewise exempted from the provisions of the decree.

The expense involved in the detention and return of persons not fulfilling the requirements of the decree shall be met by the steamship company which gives them passage to Panama.

These regulations became effective with their promulgation and will remain in force as long as present economic conditions continue to prevail.

The quota system of immigration was introduced into COLOMBIA on December 18, 1931, when President Olaya Herrera issued a decree placing on a quota basis the immigration of all persons of Bulgarian, Chinese, Greek, Hindu, Libanese, Lithuanian, Palestinian, Rumanian, Russian, Syrian, Turkish, and Yugoslavic origin. Diplomatic and consular representatives of Colombia may visa passports of persons of these nationalities only when authorized by the Ministry of Foreign Relations. During the year 1932, the quota for immigrants from these countries will be limited to 10 each. Persons of these nationalities who have been residents of Colombia for at least three years and have been away from the country not more than a year and the parents, children, husband or wife of such persons resident in Colombia will not be subject to the quota law. In the case of the entrance of members of the family, however, it must be proved to the satisfaction of the Ministry of Foreign Relations that the member of the family already resident in the country will be able to support them.

According to a law passed by the Congress of the DOMINICAN REPUBLIC on January 26, 1932, all immigrants, irrespective of their occupation, must secure permission from the Department of the Interior, Police, War, and Marine before they can enter the country. Diplomatic or consular representatives of foreign Governments, university graduates, and tourists who expect to remain in the country not more than 30 days will, however, be exempt from compliance with the provisions of the law.

Persons of the Mongolian race or natives of Africa other than those of the Caucasian race will be subject to the payment of 300 pesos for permission to enter the Republic and 100 pesos to remain in the Republic. For other immigrants the charge for the entrance permit will be 6 pesos and that for their stay in the country will be 6 pesos for each year that they remain.

Persons who enter the Republic to engage in commercial activities and do not remain longer than 30 days will not be subject to the immigration law nor will they be obliged to meet the other specified requirements.

Permits for entering the country will be valid for a year. Non-citizens once in the country but away at the time of the passage of the law will be required to secure an entrance permit before they return. Those who have established a legitimate business in the Republic and made their residence there during the past two years will be exempt from these provisions.

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## SOCIAL WELFARE

*New public health services and institutions.*—The launching of health and sanitation campaigns, the organization of public welfare societies, and the opening of further child welfare services all formed an important and absorbing chapter in the record of social welfare activities in Latin America during the past few months. GUATEMALA, HONDURAS, MEXICO, and PARAGUAY marshaled their public health services in new combat against disease; CHILE and MEXICO reported the organization of important welfare associations; public and private agencies in CUBA, MEXICO, and PERU announced the opening of additional services for the protection of the child and from the DOMINICAN REPUBLIC came news of the completion of a fine, well-equipped hospital building.

Two important phases of the work planned by the public health service of Guatemala for the present year are the extension of the work of the public health units and the waging of an intensive campaign against malaria. Public health units have already been established in the cities of Retalhuleu, Mazatenango, San Jose, Nueva Santa Rosa, and Puerto Barrios, and in view of the success obtained it has been decided to spread the service to other cities. The new units are expected to be similar in organization to those already formed and will probably include visiting nurses. The antimalaria campaign will center in the departments of Santa Rosa, Jalapa, and Zacapa; it will be in charge of public health brigades under the direction of the departmental engineering commissioner. One of the first

tasks of the brigades will be to drain the swamps which afford a breeding place for mosquitos.

Considerable progress in the adoption of measures obliging persons engaged in the sale of food or beverages to have health certificates was reported during February by the Bureau of Public Health of MEXICO. The regulation is now being strictly enforced in Monterrey, Torreón, and Saltillo, as well as the Federal District, and action will be taken by the Bureau to extend the benefits of the ruling to all parts of the Republic.

The Bureau of Public Health of Asuncion, PARAGUAY, is undertaking a campaign to rid the city of rats. The plan outlined by the health office has received the official approval of the mayor and it is hoped that there will be no delay in the beginning of actual work. In order to arouse the interest of the public and enlist its cooperation, three or more weeks will be set aside each year when efforts for the extermination of the rodents will be intensified. On these occasions everyone will be requested to assist by clearing away waste and taking specific steps for the extermination of the pest. Regularly, such activities will be carried on by a special corps of workers detailed from the National Bureaus of Hygiene and Public Welfare. The cooperation of the press is expected and much printed matter will also be distributed by the officials in charge.

Recognizing the importance of the work being done in HONDURAS for the betterment of social conditions by the leagues against alcoholism the Government has passed a resolution according them official status. The present action on the part of the President will undoubtedly greatly facilitate their work and since they have already been closely cooperating with the Government in its social welfare activities, it gives them the position which they justly deserve.

Unusual interest was manifest in the organization of the National Association of Public Welfare of CHILE on October 16, 1931. Those present at the inaugural session included professors from the School of Medicine, the President of the National Child Welfare Committee, the Director of the School of Social Service, the Director of the School of Public Health Nurses, the directors of the different public welfare institutions in Santiago, and public health physicians. The purposes of the new organization will be to disseminate health information, to cooperate with national public health organizations, to participate in international movements for the modernization and improvement of the construction, administration, and service of hospitals, asylums, dispensaries, and other similar institutions, to engage in a technical and administrative survey of the progress and efficiency of social welfare institutions, and to encourage members to fit themselves for the better discharge of their profession.

The purpose of the Society of Eugenics, organized in MEXICO, is to assist in the improvement of the race through publicity concerning the proper care and training of the child. The activities of the society are divided into two main lines of endeavor, one involving investigation and the other active social work. A number of lectures on subjects related to questions under study have already been sponsored by the society and others are announced for the near future.

During December the National League against Tuberculosis of CUBA opened a dining room in Habana where children of poverty-stricken parents registered in the dispensary of the League may secure free a wholesome noon-day meal. Eighty children were served the first day the dining room was opened. It is understood that the League expects to establish another similar restaurant at an early date.

An interesting innovation recently introduced in its child welfare work by the Bureau of Public Welfare of MEXICO is the creation in the bureau of a section of psychiatry. The work of the new office, which is in charge of a woman specially trained in universities of the United States and Europe, will concern itself entirely with a study of the aptitudes, character, and mentality of the children receiving their education in the institutions under the direction of the Bureau and will undoubtedly play an important rôle in assisting the Bureau to aid these children in developing along normal and useful lines. Another new line of work being carried on by the Bureau involves the application of the knowledge regarding the aptitudes of the children once they have been determined, and in this particular case concerns their musical training. A band and orchestra have been formed by children of musical talent in the public welfare institutions and these after proper training are presented in public concerts.

The organization of an open-air school in the buildings erected for the purpose at the Pérez Aranibar Children's Hospital in Lima, PERU, has been intrusted to the Society of Public Welfare of the city by virtue of a recent Government decree. The administration of the school, whose purpose is to afford a place where undeveloped children from the public schools may improve their health without being retarded in their studies, will be entirely in charge of the Society. It will, however, be subject to regulations issued by the Government. The school will be under the supervision of a physician and all instruction will be in the open air. The selection of the children for the school will be made by the school physicians. Not more than 1,000 pupils can be accommodated at one time. Special taxes were set aside for this purpose, but the decree provides that should their yield be greater than was expected, all over and above that necessary for the maintenance of the school shall be applied for the establishment of school lunch rooms in Lima and the coastal region of the country.



Hospital services in Santo Domingo, DOMINICAN REPUBLIC, have been greatly improved by the completion and opening of the new building of the International Hospital during February. Involving an expenditure of 200,000 pesos, the new 3-story building represents the best to be had in modern hospital facilities. On the first floor are the offices of the directors, a dental clinic, general clinic, pharmacy, kitchen, and laundry; the second floor provides space for the dining room and offices of the nurses, wards for men and children, a children's clinic, laboratory, X-ray room, and operating room. The third floor is devoted to the women's wards, private rooms, another operating room, maternity ward, sterilization room, and nurses' dormitory. The roof affords a place for the recreation of convalescents. The technical direction of the hospital is under a medical council composed of the heads of the three departments into which its work is divided, and its general administration has been delegated to an executive secretary. It is staffed by 5 graduate and 12 student nurses.

*Activities of the Red Cross.*—While at instant command, ready to succor the victims of disaster at a moment's notice, the Red Cross Societies of Latin America, like those in other parts of the world, do not confine themselves wholly to such ministrations. Indeed, it is perhaps in the less spectacular but no less important work of aiding the needy, treating the sick, training nurses, and disseminating health information that they render their greatest and most effective service.

In the promotion of hygiene and child welfare throughout the Republic, the Red Cross of CHILE is greatly assisted by its local committees, which, as reports from Vallenar, Curico, Los Angeles, La Union and Calama reveal, are doing a highly important work. New committees are constantly being created to extend the benefit of welfare services to other localities; prevailing economic conditions, with the consequent increase in the number of persons needing aid, have necessitated a still further expansion of all activities.

During the first six months of 1931, 39,669 feedings were distributed by the milk station of the Red Cross in Vallenar. This was an increase of 14,881 over the number distributed during the same period of the preceding year. The dispensary in that city treated 369 persons and filled 244 prescriptions free of charge during the six months' period.

In Curico a milk station and dental clinic have been recently opened and a considerable quantity of children's clothing distributed to mothers registered with the committee. According to available information, a mothers' canteen will probably also be opened within a short time to supplement the work of the milk station.

The committee in Los Angeles reported that 9,236 children had been treated in its dispensary, 6,040 attended in the dental clinic, and 2,806 prescriptions filled free of charge in the pharmacy during the 15 months this service had been open to the public. In September the committee moved into new quarters which provide ample space for all the needs of the work.

One of the most important activities of the committee at La Unión during the past year has been the distribution of clothing and food to the families suffering need as a result of the widespread unemployment.

The Calama committee recently announced that preparations were being made for the opening in that city of a dispensary for mothers and children needing medical care. While the work of the new dispensary will be principally among destitute mothers, supplementing the treatment available to them in the hospitals, it will also be open to others and include services for children.

More than 25,000 persons were treated during the year 1931 in the dispensary of the Women's Red Cross in Santiago, according to an announcement made by the press. Prescriptions filled free of charge totaled over 2,000, and the number of articles of clothing distributed was also very large. The milk station of the Red Cross was said to have distributed more than 500,000 quarts of milk to needy mothers, while through its other services 786 families were given assistance during the months of October, November, and December alone.

A special dispensary for the prophylaxis and treatment of tuberculosis was opened in San José during the latter part of the year 1931 by the Red Cross of COSTA RICA. At present this society is making arrangements for the organization of a national league for the prevention of the disease, an activity in which it has been promised the full cooperation of the Government.

One of the outstanding features of the work being done in Caracas by the Red Cross of VENEZUELA is the maintenance of hospital service. While this service is open to both adults and children, no provision has as yet been made for child patients suffering from communicable diseases, and in the case of adults only those requiring surgical operations are admitted. All medical care is free; persons undergoing operations ordinarily pay sufficient to cover the expense incidental to their operation and a nominal fee for hospitalization, but often in an emergency case or for poor patients no charge whatever is made. Free hospital service for children was established during February, 1931. Should an operation be necessary, the charges are made on the same basis as those for adults, with the exception that in cases where the treatment covers an unusual length of time no payment is asked.

The Red Cross also maintains a dispensary, pharmacy, laboratory, dental clinic and X-ray service in Caracas. In these, as in the hospital, the patient is expected to pay only a nominal sum sufficient to cover the cost of surgical dressing, medicines, and other materials; poverty-stricken patients are treated free.

During the first six months of 1931, 5,798 visits were made to the various services in charge of the Red Cross. Treatments numbered 1,858, operations 108, and inoculations 3,648. A total of 5,299 prescriptions was filled in the pharmacy and much important work done by the dental clinic, which reported 1,488 extractions and 116 fillings.

A short course in nursing was opened by the Red Cross of PARAGUAY in its national headquarters in Asunción on January 20, 1932. The practice work of the course, which is being offered free of tuition, will be done in the clinical and military hospitals. The classes are under the direction of Dr. Jacinto Riera, the secretary general of the Red Cross, who is also a professor in the School of Nursing of the National University.

# SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

REPORTS RECEIVED TO MARCH 15, 1932

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Argentina, Jan. 12 to 23, 1932.	1932 Jan. 29	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Contemplated road and bridge construction in Argentina-----	Feb. 4	A. M. Warren, consul at Buenos Aires.
COSTA RICA		
Report on annual report of Chamber of Commerce of Costa Rica....	Feb. 10	David J. D. Myers, consul at San Jose.
ECUADOR		
Copy of <i>Boletin General de Estadistica</i> , No. 2, August, 1931-----	Jan. 12	Legation, Quito.
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Ecuador during January, 1932.	Feb. 1	Do.
EL SALVADOR		
Excerpt from miscellaneous notes (The National University)-----	Feb. 9	A. E. Carleton, consul at San Salvador.
MEXICO		
Work on Nogales highway to be resumed-----	Feb. 20	Bartley F. Yost, consul at Nogales.
PERU		
Decree-law of Feb. 3, 1932, establishing control over archæological monuments of Peru.	Feb. 20	Embassy, Lima.
URUGUAY		
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Uruguay for January, 1932.	Feb. 3	Legation, Montevideo.
VENEZUELA		
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Venezuela for January, 1932. (Foreign commercial interests in Venezuela, and pearl fisheries of Nueva Sparta and the Peninsula of Araya.)	Feb. 4	Legation, Caracas.



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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



THE "SANTA MARIA"

THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE  
IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

MAY

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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“THOU, GENIUS WITHOUT PEER, HAST MADE A WORLD THY STATUE’S BASE.” —RAFAEL POMBO



#### THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE

The design placed first in the international competition for the monumental lighthouse which the nations will erect in the Dominican Republic to the memory of Christopher Columbus, J. L. Gleave, Architect.





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## THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE

MESSAGE OF GENERAL RAFAEL L. TRUJILLO,  
PRESIDENT OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

A PECULIAR satisfaction is mine on seeing that the momentous project for the erection of a memorial lighthouse to Columbus in the capital of the Dominican Republic, the place destined by Providence to be the cradle of European civilization in the New World, should have progressed so far toward becoming a glorious reality.

Now at last our cherished project, sponsored also by the Pan American Union and the League of Nations, which has recommended it for world consideration, is about to take form in a marvel of hallowed stone.

Not only will the lighthouse symbolize the homage paid throughout the ages to the Great Navigator and stand as the heroic expression of his brilliant vision and accomplishment, but, more nobly still, it will be the sign of brotherhood among the nations—the emblem of an international peace born through the application of the highest of all laws, the law of love.

How appropriate it was that the plan of the design awarded first prize in the second stage of the lighthouse competition should be the Cross, the highest symbol of love, most eloquent expression of Christian idealism, and purest representation of the closer relations of men and nations!

Such was the inspired concept of Gleave, the architect, whose skill has enabled him to envision embodied in everlasting stone that deed considered by many the greatest episode in history since the advent of Christianity.

On behalf of the Republic of which I am President, permit me to express most profound gratitude to all the countries that have thus far had a part in the erection of the lighthouse and to take this opportunity of rendering special thanks to the Pan American Union for its cordial assistance. I venture the hope that every country which has not yet had a share in rendering homage to Columbus may join these others so that the monument to his name shall be a universal tribute to his genius and his deeds.

Because of the extraordinary influence which the discovery of America has had on the progress of humanity, Columbus, aided by the noble and heroic Spanish nation, may be considered one of the greatest instruments for the achievement of international good will. It is therefore to be hoped that the rays from the lighthouse erected to his memory shall be like a banner of love under which all the peoples of the earth may partake of the sacrament of peace.





HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL RAFAEL L. TRUJILLO

President of the Dominican Republic and enthusiastic supporter of the plan for erecting a monumental lighthouse to the memory of Columbus.

# THE MONUMENT TO THE DISCOVERER OF AMERICA AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

By L. S. ROWE, Ph. D., LL. D.,  
*Director General of the Pan American Union*

THE plan for the erection of a continental memorial to the Great Discoverer is one that is certain to kindle the imagination of all the nations of this continent.

Warmly approved by the Fifth International Conference of American States held at Santiago, Chile, and by the Sixth Conference held at Habana, the project may be said to have the united support of the nations of America. The resolution adopted by the Assembly of the League of Nations carries this approval one step further by giving to the project world-wide support.

Every one interested in this great memorial owes a debt of gratitude to the Government of the Dominican Republic, which at considerable sacrifice has defrayed all the preliminary expenses. This has involved in the first place a world-wide competition of architects whose projects were exhibited at Madrid in April, 1929, and subsequently at Rome. The international jury which viewed this exhibit selected the 10 best designs, and the architects thus selected entered upon the second competition. The designs submitted in this competition were exhibited at Rio de Janeiro in October, 1931. The international jury awarded the first prize to Mr. J. L. Gleave, of Manchester, England. The premiated design is in every respect worthy of its great purpose.

Now that all the preliminary steps have been taken, the time has arrived for the assembling of funds necessary for the construction of the lighthouse. The Government of the Dominican Republic has generously set aside a magnificent park, and it is confidently expected that not only the Governments of the American Republics will make their contribution but that popular subscriptions from every part of the world will also be forthcoming.

The memorial, in addition to its great monumental significance, will also serve a highly useful purpose as a beacon to navigators by sea and by air. The Dominican Republic has become a great cross-roads of aerial navigation, and a beacon such as that which the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse will afford will mean much to the safety of travel.

# THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE ARCHITECTURAL COMPETITION

## ITS HISTORY

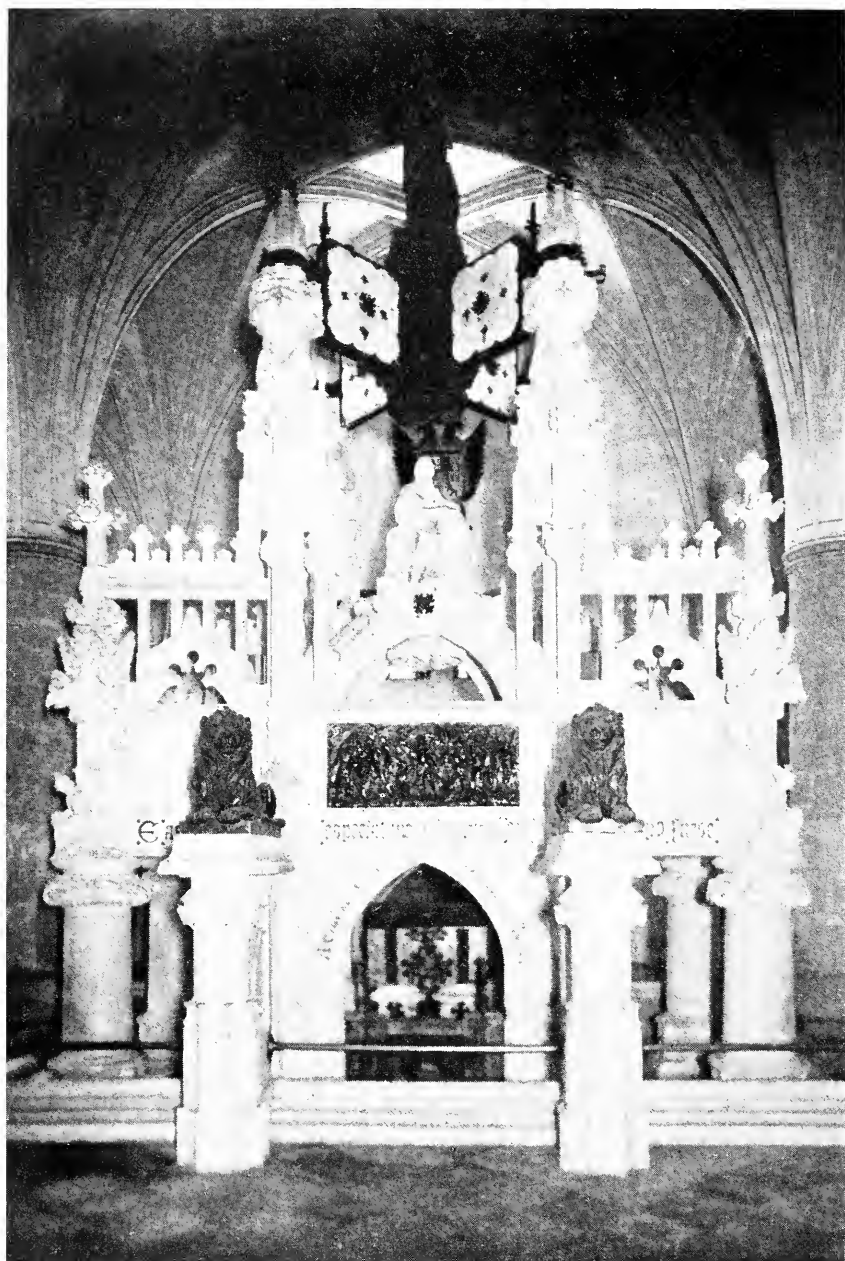
By C. KEECH LUDEWIG

*Assistant Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union*

**E**XACTLY 360 years after Columbus sighted the lands of the New World, which he took to be the western coast of the Indies, there appeared in print for the first time the suggestion that the achievement of the Great Navigator be commemorated in the form of a lasting monument in Santo Domingo, the first permanent settlement of Old World inhabitants in the Western Hemisphere, on the shores of the island known to the world as Santo Domingo or Haiti and to Columbus as "La Española."

The following is an excerpt from the *History of Santo Domingo* written by Antonio del Monte y Tejada, a son of Santo Domingo, and published in 1852:

The time has arrived with this Era of Enlightenment, the nineteenth century, when the verdict of posterity should be anticipated and proclaimed. This verdict must be as noble, generous, memorable, and eternal as his deeds. Let all America proclaim it in unison, and let her acknowledge by all means and by every manner that the honor of the Discovery belongs to Columbus; that to him, as the initiator of such great exploits, are due the many discoveries that have been made by others to this day; that all the influence exerted by this inestimable act on the history of civilization is his because of the revolution that it effected in the sciences and in the spirit of modern nations; that without exception all nations who have possessions in America owe him a debt of gratitude because he was the instrument chosen by the Divine Providence to help them to achieve such possessions and the happiness that it had prepared, in the course of time, for their subjects in this hemisphere; and in order that this acknowledgment may be worthy of the New World let us erect in the most visible and notable place in America, in a central point and where it may be visited by travelers as they approach her shores, the statue that his greatness and remembrance demand. I am daring enough to designate as such a place, Cape Isabela on the island Hispaniola, because there the first city in America was founded. Let this statue be a Colossus like that of Rhodes, and let it be designed by the best sculptor available and paid with funds raised by popular subscriptions in all the cities of Europe and America; and let this statue have its arms extended and pointing to the one and the other American Continents. In order that this symbol may carry within itself all the attributes of perpetuity, let there be established in it a lighthouse so travelers from the Old and New Worlds may look, full of gratitude and emotion, toward that venerable image when they sight the first land from the ocean. If the descendants of the illustrious House of Veragua feel that to them belongs the



MONUMENT TO CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

This imposing monument of marble and bronze in the nave of the cathedral at Santo Domingo was dedicated December 6, 1896, the four hundred and fourth anniversary of the discovery of "La Española" by Columbus. Plans provide for the removal of this monument to a chapel contained within the proposed Memorial Lighthouse.

right to promote this act of recognition to the greatness of Columbus, no one is better able than they are to see that the memorial is worthy of the Great Navigator, and that it may serve posterity as a beacon of light and enlightenment in the dark night of the Ages.

It will be noted that the suggested site of the memorial is Cape Isabela, and that the first suggestion for a memorial was that it take the form of a lighthouse.

Not until 1880, under the provisional presidency of Gen. Gregorio Luperón, did the project again receive public mention—this time of an official character. In that year General Luperón issued a decree calling upon all the nations of the Americas, upon Spain, Italy, and all other nations of Europe to cooperate in the erection of a monument. The decree contained comprehensive plans for the formation of a committee composed of the diplomatic and consular corps in Santo Domingo to receive contributions from the various Governments, and in collaboration with the Government of the Dominican Republic to see that the project was carried to a successful completion.

The decree, however, failed to provide the spark to touch off the imagination of the world. Again in 1887 the idea was revived, and there stands to-day in the Plaza de Colón, in Santo Domingo, a statue to the Discoverer, which was placed there in that year as a result of the labors of the committee which had been formed. This was far from sufficient, however. The magnitude of the achievement demanded a more impressive memorial for its commemoration.

On October 12, 1892, the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, there was formed in Santo Domingo the National Columbian Committee, which was charged with the erection of a suitable monument to commemorate the Discoverer. This was dedicated on December 6, 1896, 404 years to the day after the discovery of *Hispaniola*, and is now in the cathedral at Santo Domingo.

The committee did not believe that its work was completed by the construction of this memorial. In its opinion its labors were only partially finished, the committee expressing the hope that the memorial would eventually be moved to a lighthouse, which would serve as a lasting tribute to the Great Navigator.

With the advent of the twentieth century the project gained additional support, when in 1914 Mr. William E. Pulliam, General Receiver of Dominican Customs, initiated a publicity campaign in which the idea received the attention of the press throughout the Americas. Mr. Pulliam also appeared before the Committee on Foreign Affairs in the United States House of Representatives urging that the Nation support the project.

It became evident that interest was international when in 1923, at the Fifth International Conference of American States, held at Santiago, Chile, Dr. Tulio M. Cestero, Delegate of the Dominican

Republic, proposed the following resolution, which was signed by all the nations participating in the conference:

The Fifth International Conference of American States

RESOLVES:

To recommend that the Governments of the American Republics honor the memory of Christopher Columbus by the erection of a monumental lighthouse which shall bear his name on the coast at Santo Domingo, capital of the Dominican Republic, and which shall be built with the cooperation of the Governments and people of America and any others who may so desire.

Subsequent to the adoption of this resolution at the Fifth Conference, various of the Republics, members of the Pan American Union, officially indorsed the project in their legislative bodies. The concurrent resolution passed by the House of Representatives on January 17 and by the Senate of the United States on January 27, 1927, reads as follows:

*Resolved by the House of Representatives (the Senate concurring), That it is the sense of the Congress that the United States approves the international project advocated at the Pan American Conference, held at Santiago de Chile, April, 1923, to erect a memorial lighthouse at Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, to Christopher Columbus, and that the several States participating in that conference be notified through the usual diplomatic channels of the desire of the people of the United States to participate in this movement to honor the memory of the Great Navigator and Discoverer.*

Following the action at the Fifth Conference, events moved more quickly in the direction of a practical working out of the idea. On May 5, 1926, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union adopted the resolution given below:

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union has heard with deep interest the presentation made by the Minister of the Dominican Republic of the plan for the erection of a Columbus Lighthouse. In view of the fact that the Fifth International Conference of American States recommended to the Governments of the American Republics that a memorial be erected to Christopher Columbus, to take the form of a lighthouse off the coast of Santo Domingo, which lighthouse will bear his name,

BE IT RESOLVED: By the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, to express its concurrence with the proposed memorial in honor of the Discoverer of the New World and its adherence to the recommendation made by the Fifth International Conference, and to recommend to the countries, members of the Pan American Union, that they cooperate in the erection of this memorial.

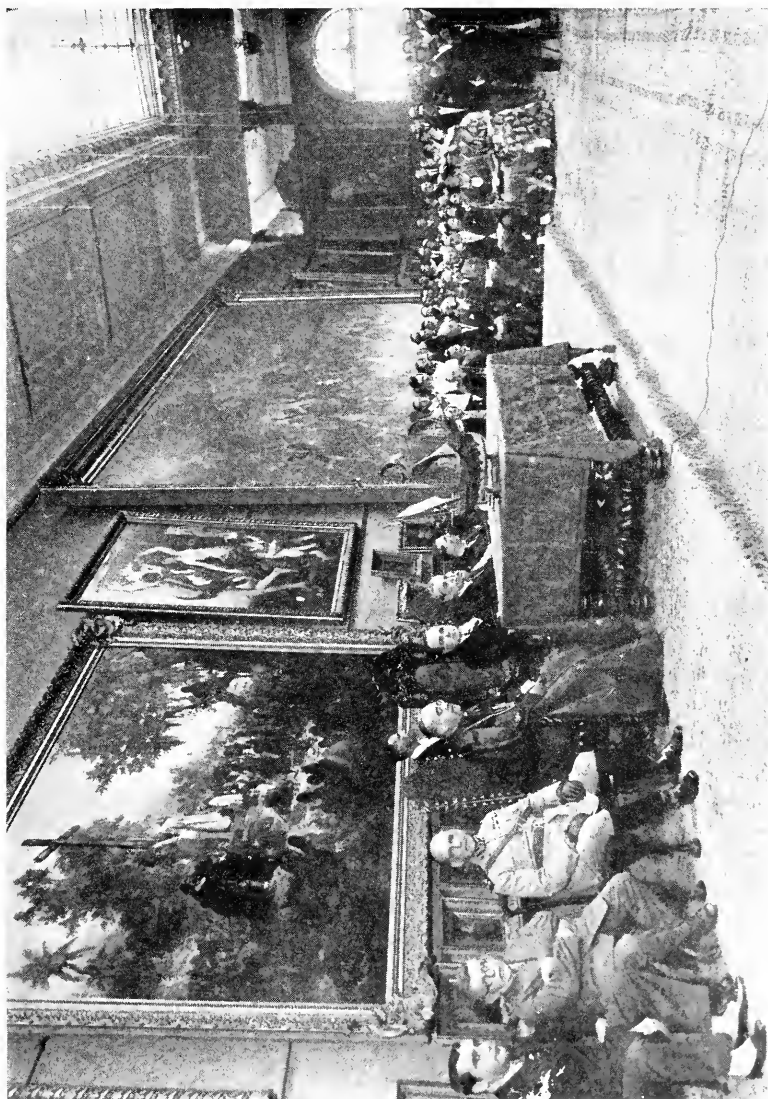
Some months later the Pan American Union was officially intrusted with the task of bringing to a successful conclusion the erection of the memorial in the Dominican Republic, through the following resolution adopted by the Governing Board on March 2, 1927:

BE IT RESOLVED: That the Pan American Union take the necessary steps to assure the realization of the project to erect the Columbus Lighthouse. The Governing Board of the Union understands that the Dominican Government will pay all the necessary expenses incidental to the preparation of plans and awarding of prizes, etc., from the \$300,000 appropriated by the Dominican Republic. The



FINAL CEREMONY OF THE CO-  
LUMBUS LIGHTHOUSE COMPE-  
TITION

The final ceremony of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse Competition took place the afternoon of October 17, 1931, in the School of Fine Arts of Rio de Janeiro. At the center of the table is His Excellency Dr. Getulio Vargas, Provisional President of Brazil; on his right is His Eminence Cardinal D. Sebastião Leme; on his left, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Afranio de Mello Franco; and beyond them are the members of the cabinet and chiefs of mission of foreign countries.



Pan American Union will do everything possible to obtain the cooperation of the other Republics of the American Continent in the appropriation of the total contribution necessary, in accordance with a plan approved by the Governing Board.

A report adopted by the Board on April 12, 1927, contained the following resolution:

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union, in order to comply with the resolution of the Fifth Pan American Conference, which recommended to the nations of America that they cooperate in the erection of a memorial lighthouse to the glory of Columbus and the discovery of the New World:

RESOLVES:

That the Committee appointed by the Board to study the form in which the project should be executed constitutes itself a Permanent Committee to study and recommend to the Board the best means of complying with the resolution of the Fifth Conference.

The Board authorizes the Committee to employ the services of an American or Spanish architect residing in the United States to determine, on the ground, in agreement with the Government of the Dominican Republic, the most appropriate site for the erection of the lighthouse, and to advise the Committee in regard to the conditions to be established for a contest which will be open to all architects in Spain and all the countries of America.

When the preparatory studies have been concluded, the Committee shall submit to the Board the conditions of the contest and the bases for the cooperation of the American nations in the erection of the monument.

On June 1, in accordance with the terms of the above resolution, Mr. Albert Kelsey, one of the architects of the Pan American Union building, was secured as technical adviser to the Committee.

As will be noted from the basic resolution adopted at the Fifth Conference, its explicit recommendations were restricted to the Governments of the American Republics. In order to widen the scope of the project so as to include all the countries of the world, especially those directly connected with the history of Columbus, the resolution cited below was adopted by the Governing Board on November 2, 1927:

Whereas, the resolution of the Fifth International Conference of American States, although limited to a recommendation that the Republics forming part of the Pan American Union cooperate in the erection of the Columbus Lighthouse, contemplates the possibility of other countries of the world participating in the tribute to the memory of the Discoverer,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union,

RESOLVES:

1. That the governments and peoples of all the nations of the world be permitted to participate in the tribute to the memory of the Discoverer;
2. That the competition for the erection of the Columbus Lighthouse be open to all architects without distinction of nationality, the resolution of the Governing Board of April 12, 1927, being amended in this respect;
3. That the report of the Committee be approved, together with the modifications recommended therein of the report of the architect, Mr. Kelsey;

4. That the Permanent Committee be authorized to have the report of Mr. Kelsey printed, together with the bases of the program of competition with the modifications recommended in the report of the committee;

5. That the committee be authorized to develop a plan of organization that will result in the international dissemination of the idea of a tribute to Columbus and to prepare a plan to obtain the cooperation of the governments and peoples of all the nations of the world.

At the Sixth International Conference of American States, held at Habana, Cuba, early in 1928, Dr. Tulio M. Cestero, Delegate of the

SEÑOR DON HORACIO  
ACOSTA Y LARA

Delegate for Latin America  
and President of the Inter-  
national Jury for the Colum-  
bus Memorial Lighthouse  
Competition.



Dominican Republic, reviewed the steps taken toward realization of the project, and the three countries which had not been represented at the Fifth Conference—Bolivia, Mexico, and Peru—expressed their desire to adhere to the project.

Subsequent to the Sixth Conference practical steps were taken for the selection of a design for the memorial. An architectural competition in two stages open to architects of all nations of the world was proclaimed, for which the Government of the Dominican Republic generously agreed to pay all expenses, including prizes.

In large measure because of the strong appeal which the idea of the lighthouse makes to the imagination, architects from practically every civilized nation of the world desired to participate in the first stage of the competition. Forty-eight nations were represented in the first stage, with more than 1,800 competitors actually registering.

It was decided that it would be most fitting to have the judgment of designs and exhibition of all drawings held in Spain, as a tribute to the close connection between the Great Navigator and the land of Ferdinand and Isabella. Accordingly, in the spring of 1929, the International Jury of Award met at Madrid to select the designs which would receive the first 10 awards in this stage. The jury, which had been chosen by vote of the competitors, was composed of the following architects: Horacio Acosta y Lara, of Uruguay, chairman, representing Latin America; Eliel Saarinen, of Finland, representing Europe; and Raymond Hood, of the United States, representing North America.

After careful consideration of the 455 designs exhibited in the Spanish capital, the jury awarded 10 first prizes of equal weight, as follows:

JOSEF WENTZLER.....	Dortmund, Germany.
WILL RICE AMON.....	New York City.
HELMLE, CORBETT and HARRISON.....	} New York City.
ROBERT P. ROGERS and ALFRED E. POOR.....	
W. K. OLTAR-JEVSKY.....	
DOUGLAS D. ELLINGTON.....	Asheville, N. C.
PIPPO MEDORI.....	} Rome, Italy.
VINCENZO PALLERI.....	
ALDO VERCELLONI.....	
LOUIS BERTHIN.....	} Paris, France.
GEORGES DOYON.....	
GEORGES NESTEROFF.....	
DONALD NELSON and EDGAR LYNCH.....	Paris, France, and Chicago, Ill.
JOAQUÍN VAQUERO PALACIOS.....	} Madrid, Spain.
LUIS MOYA BLANCO.....	
THÉO. LESCHER.....	} Paris, France.
PAUL ANDRIEU.....	
GEORGES DEFONTAINE.....	
MAURICE GAUTHIER.....	
J. L. GLEAVE.....	Nottingham, England.

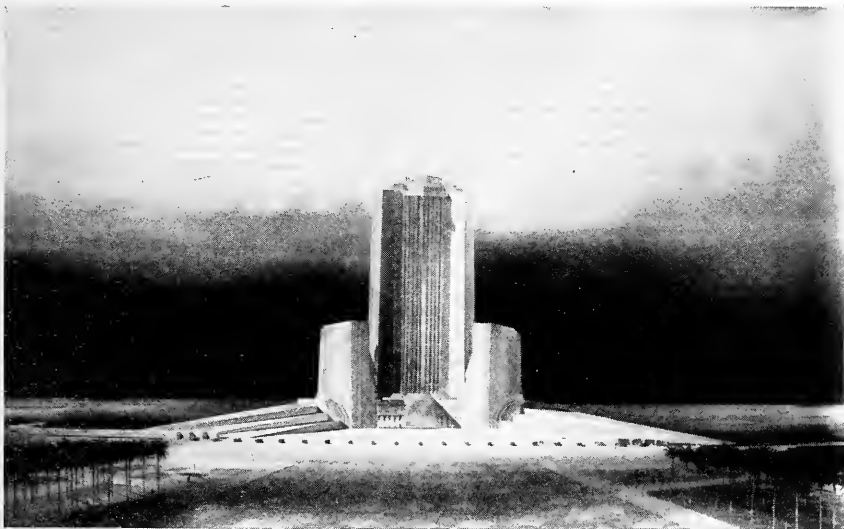
Each of these competitors received \$2,000 and was eligible to recompete in the second stage of the competition. In addition, 10 second prizes of \$500 each were awarded.

After the exhibition of all the designs at Madrid, and upon invitation of the Italian Government, the entire collection was taken to Italy and shown in the Exposition Palace at Rome.

At the close of this exhibition, the 10 designs awarded first prizes were returned to their authors, who redrafted them under new regula-

tions for submission in the second stage of the competition. The second stage was brought to a close at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in October, 1931. The same jury was in attendance, with the exception of Mr. Hood, who was unable to attend. He was replaced by Mr. Frank Lloyd Wright.

As is well known, Mr. J. L. Gleave, now of Manchester, England, was awarded the first prize of \$10,000, and will be the architect for the Memorial Lighthouse when construction is commenced. The other awards were as follows: Second prize of \$7,500; third prize of \$5,000; fourth prize of \$2,500;<sup>1</sup> and a prize of \$1,000 to each of the remaining six competitors.



DESIGN AWARDED SECOND PRIZE

This design, the work of Donald Nelson and Edgar Lynch (Bennett, Parsons and Frost, associated architects, and Oskar J. W. Hansen, associated sculptor) architects of the United States, was awarded the second prize of \$7,500.

The project received world-wide attention in September, 1931, when the League of Nations, in the twelfth session of the assembly, made official mention of it and gave its approval to the idea through the following resolution, which was presented by the delegations of Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Haiti, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela:

The Assembly:

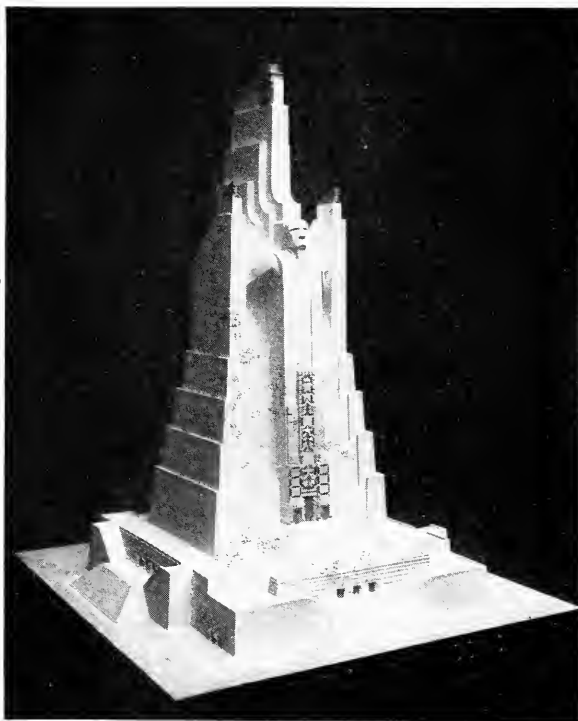
Views with entire satisfaction the happy initiative of the Government of the Dominican Republic, adopted officially and unanimously by the 21 sovereign Republics of the New World represented at the Fifth and Sixth International Conferences of American States held at Santiago, Chile, and Habana, to erect,

<sup>1</sup> See page 326.

in the Dominican Republic, the center of the discovery and colonization of the Western Hemisphere, a monumental lighthouse to perpetuate the admiration and gratitude of humanity toward Christopher Columbus, the Discoverer of the New World and one of the greatest benefactors of mankind;

Considering that the monumental lighthouse will be built on the aerial center of the West Indies, and that it will be the guide to sea and air navigation for the greater part of the Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea, a circumstance which places the proposed work within the aims of the League of Nations;

Considering also that this first universal homage to the man who completed the globe will house in adjacent structures a library and museum of documents relating to Columbus, and other sources of intellectual culture to be at the dis-



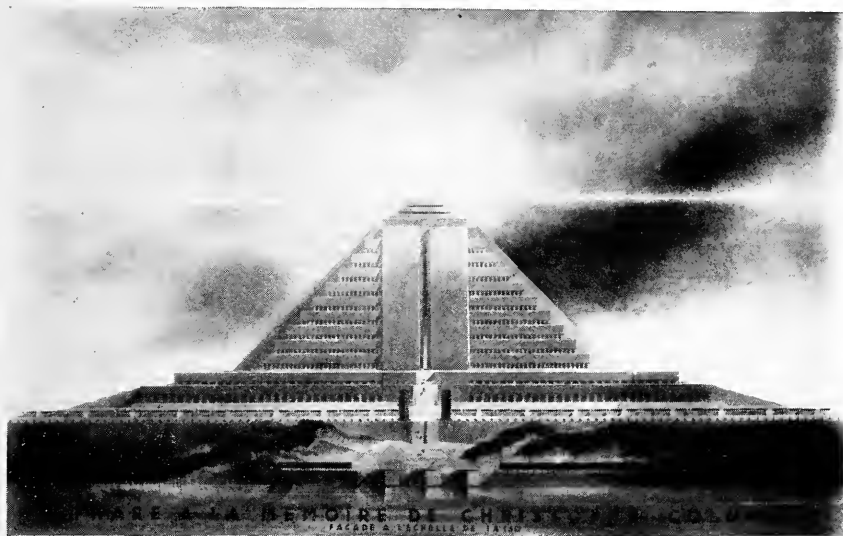
DESIGN AWARDED  
THIRD PRIZE

This model for the Columbus Lighthouse, submitted by the Spanish architects Joaquín Vaquero Palacios and Luis Moya Blanco, won the third prize of \$5,000.

posal of humanity, thus coming within the intellectual cooperation activities of the League:

Expresses its deep sympathy for the noble initiative of the Dominican Republic, an initiative which in addition to being an act of homage due a genius such as Columbus and such a nation as Spain, creates and will sustain perpetually around it elements propitious to the progress and development of international communications and, consequently, propitious to the development of good will among the States of both continents and the perfection of human intercourse.

As an example of the widespread interest in the project, mention should be made of the resolution adopted at the closing session of the Third Pan American Postal Congress held at Madrid, Spain, in No-



DESIGN AWARDED FOURTH PRIZE

Théo. Lescher, Paul Andrieu, O. Zavaroni, and Maurice Gauthier, architects of Paris, France, received the fourth prize of \$2,500 for this design.

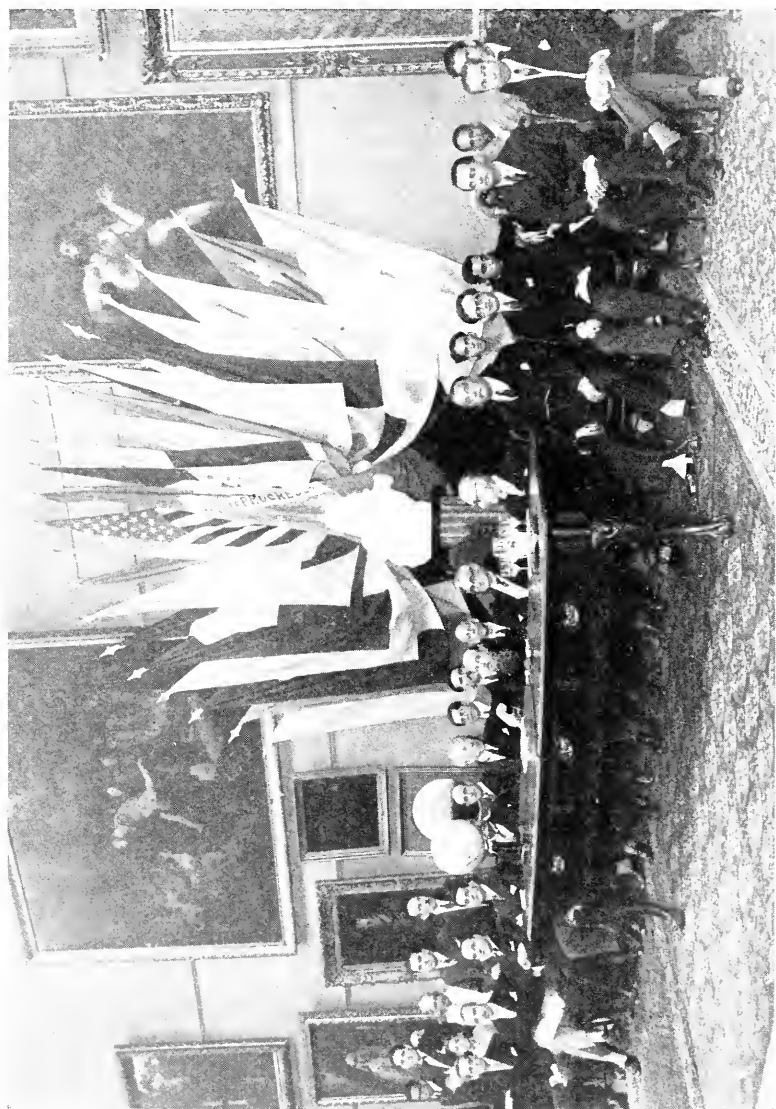
vember, 1931. This resolution acknowledged Columbus as the author of the definite development of international postal services, one of the factors contributing to understanding and good will among nations, and complimented the Government and people of the Dominican Republic on promoting the erection of the lighthouse.

After the lighthouse is built, it is hoped to construct in connection with it an airport, park, seaplane basin, and other adjuncts. The geographical location of the Dominican Republic could hardly be better for the construction of an international air center in the Western Hemisphere. Located approximately equidistant from Central America, the north coast of South America and the southern tip of North America, it could also serve with equal facility as an important center of traffic with Cuba, the West Indies, and the Bahamas. At the present time the air line covering the longest scheduled route in the world makes Santo Domingo a port of call. Since the city has become a stopping-place for planes of this line, many hundreds of passengers have viewed and lived in the charm of the most ancient Old World settlement in the New.

Is it daring to prophesy that in the not too distant future, Santo Domingo will furnish a new picture of activity in international transportation and communication, with planes of the air and ships of the sea guided to this haven at night by the beams of a gigantic recumbent cross?

# THE INTERNATIONAL JURY FOR THE SECOND COLUMBUS LIGHT- HOUSE COMPETITION

In October 1931, the International Jury, composed of Señor don Horacio Acosta y Lara, of Uruguay, Mr. Eilif Saarinen, of Finland, and Mr. Frank Lloyd Wright, of the United States, gathered in the magnificent building of the National School of Fine Arts of Rio de Janeiro, to give a final decision on the prize-winning designs in the first competition in Madrid in 1929 competed in this second stage. In accordance with the jury's vote, the first prize went to an English architect, J. L. Gleave. His Excellency Dr. Tulio M. Cestero, Envoy Extraordinary of the Dominican Republic in Special Mission to Brazil, is shown presiding at this table, accompanied by His Excellency Señor don Alfonso Reyes, Ambassador of Mexico to Brazil, members of the jury, Prof. Nestor E. de Figueiredo, president of the Brazilian Institute of Architects, and Mr. Albert Kelsey, Technical Advisor to the Permanent Committee of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union on the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse.





# THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE COMPETITION

## CEREMONY OF AWARD OF PRIZES THE OPENING OF THE FINAL EXHIBITION

By ALBERT KELSEY, F. A. I. A.

*Technical Adviser to the Permanent Committee of the Governing Board of the Pan  
American Union on the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse*

AS IT is but 40 years since the fall of the Empire of Dom Pedro II, there still persist in Brazil many pleasant memories of ceremonies of great solemnity and splendor, and as the ceremony of award of prizes in the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse competition was to be an international affair in which that country was to act as host in its capital, the program was therefore planned and carried out with a solemnity and dignity worthy of the traditions and ancient landmarks of a city that is still strongly Portuguese. The mere fact that a naval band of 60 pieces played while the President and other guests arrived and were being received by the Special Envoy of the Dominican Republic gives some idea of the scale and character of the occasion.

It would be hard, indeed, to overpraise the arrangements that were made by the Brazilian Government; His Excellency, Hon. Edwin V. Morgan, the Ambassador of the United States of America; the Central Institute of Brazilian Architects; and Senhor José Roberto de Macedo Soares, Chief of Protocol, for the exhibition of the drawings and models and especially for the formal ceremony at which were to be announced the names of the winners in the most significant, if not the most important, architectural competition of modern times, that for a design for the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse.

Of the 10 contestants in the second stage of the architectural competition 3 were from the United States, 3 from France, and 1 each from England, Germany, Italy, and Spain. Of these, in the first contest eight submitted totally different schemes, while two of the designs were more or less alike. Under the terms of the second contest all participants were permitted to make a fresh start, but most of them did not do so. Mr. J. L. Gleave, to whom the first prize was awarded, departed radically from his first conception, showing a remarkably fertile mind and a degree of imaginative power which is quite unusual, and which caused the international jury to place his design in a class by itself.



HIS EXCELLENCY DR. GETULIO VARGAS, PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT OF BRAZIL, AND HIS EXCELLENCY DR. TULIO M. CESTERO, ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ON SPECIAL MISSION TO BRAZIL

The ceremony took place in a hall 150 feet long adjoining the other galleries in the Palace of Fine Arts—a hall strongly resembling the famous *Gallerie de la Guerre* at Versailles. The decorations and seating arrangements were unique. Instead of a single rostrum for the speakers and guests of honor, the long hall was so divided in the center as to provide for a dignified open surface separating those present into four groups. The high officials sat on a long, low platform on one side and the speakers, the members of the international jury, and the local committee of architects back of a handsome table on the other. Thus the spectators were massed into two separate audiences facing each other and extending back row upon row to the ends of the long and impressive gallery. Special distinction was given the occasion by the fact that Dr. Getulio Vargas, Provisional President of the Republic, presided, calling upon each speaker with great dignity and deliberation, and closing the stately ceremony with a few brief but very appropriate remarks. To the President's right was Monsignor Leme da Silveira Cintra, the Cardinal Archbishop of Rio de Janeiro, in gorgeous vestments; and on either side sat the members of the Cabinet, the Secretaries of the Army and Navy being in full uniform. Directly opposite, in an elaborately carved high-backed chair of *jacaranda* wood, was His Excellency Dr. Tulio M. Cestero, the Special Envoy of the Dominican Republic, and near by His Excellency Señor Don Alfonso Reyes, the Ambassador of Mexico and the orator of the day, Señor Don Horacio Acosta y Lara, chairman of the competition's international jury of award, and Sr. Nestor Figueiredo, president of the Central Institute of Architects of Brazil. At right angles to these two impressive groups and in the first rows of chairs right and left sat on one side the chiefs of mission of virtually every nation that maintains an embassy or legation in Rio de Janeiro and on the other a number of brightly garbed bishops and lesser clergy.

Since the addresses are published in full hereinafter, it is only necessary to allude to the grace and ease of the President, the earnestness of the Dominican Envoy, and the eloquence of the Ambassador of Mexico, who in finished oratory and with Latin grace held his hearers spellbound as he reviewed the progress of western civilization since the days of Columbus, each gesture, every facial expression, adding to the interest, the clarity, and the enjoyment of his discourse.

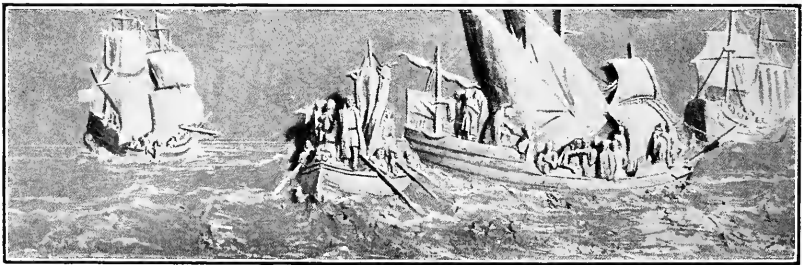
The exposition filled the entire inner girdle of galleries on the most important floor of the Palace of Fine Arts, except the entrance hall, where a bust of Columbus, in front of a great sunburst of flags formed with the colorful national standards of the 21 American Republics, greeted the guests.

After the ceremony, the President formally opened the exhibition, followed as he entered by the highest dignitaries of church and state, the chiefs of mission, and the social and intellectual élite of the brilliant capital of Brazil.

An hour was spent in inspecting the drawings and models, the throng following the President and the Cardinal, those nearest to them listening to their comments and observations with keen interest.

It was an informal progress. Many questions were asked and answered, while the Cardinal remarked with evident pleasure, as he stood before the model of Mr. Gleave's inspired design, "Last week we dedicated the great *Christ* on Corcovado, that so to speak now dominates Brazil. In a few years I hope we shall dedicate this great recumbent cross at the historic halfway point between the two American continents, to dominate, as it were, the Western Hemisphere."

Following the announcement of the names of the prize winners and the opening of the exhibition to the public, a few days later His Excellency Doctor Cestero, the Special Envoy of the Dominican Republic, gave a banquet at the Gloria Hotel in honor of Sr. Afranio de Mello Franco, the Brazilian Minister of Foreign Affairs, which was attended by most of the members of the diplomatic corps, officials of the Government, the members of the International Jury, and many men prominent in the intellectual and social life of Rio de Janeiro, at which the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse project was extolled as a necessary international symbol of friendship and progress.



# ADDRESSES DELIVERED AT THE CEREMONY OF AWARD OF PRIZES

## I

ADDRESS OF HORACIO ACOSTA Y LARA, PRESIDENT OF THE JURY OF  
AWARD

**I**N the mysterious onward march of time the great events of human history are marked by a special rhythm.

Thus, when the time had fully come, the mind of Columbus was kindled, and with the strength of an Atlas, through the sheer force of his convictions and ideals, he pushed back the horizons of the world and initiated the greatest advance of humanity.

Likewise in the fullness of time mankind has paused in its hurried march of progress, and with great devotion and fervor purposes to raise there, where Columbus first planted the Cross, a monumental lighthouse whose beams shall serve to illumine the course of mariners through sea and sky; a lighthouse which, by its form and holy meaning, shall guide all of life's travelers toward the fulfillment of their highest destiny.

Since Columbus did honor to all mankind, men thus seek to honor him, leaving to posterity in evidence of their gratitude and admiration a monument that throughout the ages may stand a witness to his extraordinary deed.

Almost a century ago the mind of Antonio del Monte y Tejada of Santo Domingo conceived the idea that a lighthouse should be erected in memory of Columbus. Today this idea reaches the beginning of its fruition in this session, when the choice of a design for the monument is to be announced.

The patriotic efforts of Gen. Gregorio Luperón, hero of the struggle of the Dominican Republic for independence in 1880; the resolution of Dr. Tulio Cestero, approved by the Fifth International Conference of American States in Chile in 1923, and that of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union in November, 1927, mark the steps taken prior to the competition whose final stage is reached to-day. Once again a work of architecture will be an imperishable witness of the sentiment, not of a single people or a single epoch, but of the unanimous and undying homage of all the peoples of the earth.

In the first stage of the competition over 450 plans were submitted; these were the work of almost a thousand architects representing 48 different countries. In the second, only the architects of the 10

designs selected as the best in the first stage participated, and the awards to these, I have the honor to announce, will be made as follows:

*First prize.*—J. L. Gleave, of Manchester, England.

*Second prize.*—Donald Nelson and Edgar Lynch, of Paris and Chicago. (Bennett, Parsons and Frost, associated architects, and Oskar W. Hansen, associated sculptor.)

*Third prize.*—Joaquín Vaquero Palacios and Luis Moya Blanco, of Madrid, Spain.

*Fourth prize.*—Théo. Lescher, Paul Andrieu, O. Zavaroni, and Maurice Gauthier, of Paris, France.

To the other six designs, honorable mention.

With this announcement the jury finishes its mission, yet it could not feel that it had fully completed its task without expressing its profound gratitude to the representatives of the Brazilian Government, dignitaries of the Church, the diplomatic corps, and prominent citizens who have to-day honored this assembly by their presence. The jury likewise wishes to take this opportunity of once again thanking Government officials for the many courteous attentions of which its members have been the object, and they will always remember with great pleasure and cordiality the generous and friendly hospitality of the Brazilian architects. Their wish is that as the nations of the world unite to effect the construction of the lighthouse, they shall be possessed of the same feeling of human kinship that inspired the Great Navigator to accomplish the feat which may well be called the greatest in all history.

## II

ADDRESS OF HIS EXCELLENCY DR. TULIO M. CESTERO, ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER Plenipotentiary of the DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ON SPECIAL MISSION BEFORE THE GOVERNMENT OF BRAZIL

The resolution of the Fifth International Conference of American States adopting the proposal of the Government of the Dominican Republic to "honor the memory of Christopher Columbus by the erection of a monumental lighthouse which shall bear his name, on the coast at Santo Domingo, capital of the Dominican Republic, and which shall be built with the cooperation of the Governments and the peoples of America, and any others who may so desire," was bound to produce a deep and lasting impression on the Dominican people, who on various occasions during the previous 75 years had declared itself in favor of such a collective tribute of gratitude, admiration, and love to Columbus in the land in which he wished his ashes to rest and where his sacred remains now repose at the Metropolitan Cathedral of the Primate of the Indies. This lighthouse, as del

Monte y Tejada, the first native of the island to write its history, said in 1852, "may serve posterity as a beacon both of light and enlightenment in the dark night of the Ages."

The Discoverer showed a marked predilection for the island he named *La Española*. He established himself there on his first voyage, thus founding the first center of Christian civilization in the New World. Rightly has it been described as "the heart of his discoveries" and the cradle of America. Of those who in our days have analyzed the extraordinary personality of the Great Navigator and his fruitful work some believe that on a former voyage he became acquainted with the charms of this island; others venture the opinion that its position was revealed to him by a shipwrecked mariner. "God gave it to me in a miraculous manner," says Columbus in his will. Which-ever version is true, it is undoubtedly in *La Española* that he achieved the height of his glory, and it is there also that human injustice enchained and imprisoned him. There he planted the Cross of Christ, and the seed sown proved so fertile that through more than four centuries, religion, language, ideals, traditions, and customs have developed vigorously, defended and maintained by a people which through the sacrifice of its blood has created a free and independent nation, despite foreign invaders and notwithstanding the transfer of sovereignty over the island by the mother country because of dynastic interests.

In 1923 the delegations of the 18 countries represented at the Fifth International Conference of American States adopted the proposal of the Dominican Government; the warm adherence of Bolivia, Mexico, and Peru, expressed by their delegates to the Sixth Conference, makes its indorsement unanimous in the Western Hemisphere. My fellow citizens are justly proud of this, all the more since a motion recently adopted at the twelfth Assembly of the League of Nations strengthens the project through international approval.

In 1927 the Dominican Government suggested to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union the adoption of the measures necessary for the erection of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse, voluntarily offering as its contribution the sum of \$300,000 to be paid in five annuities. As a result, the Governing Board designated a Permanent Committee composed of three of the diplomatic representatives of American Republics which make up the Board for the purpose of holding competitions to select a design worthy of the man and the event to be commemorated, the expense incidental to these competitions to be defrayed from the contribution of the Dominican Government. The Permanent Committee chose the capital of that glorious country, mother of 18 of the American Republics, the nation that completed the stupendous task personified by Columbus, as the meeting place of the Jury of Award for the first stage of the

competition; and for the second, this enchanting and hospitable city, heart of the noble people which enhances and carries onward in America Portugal's contribution to the expansion of Iberian culture. Two events, gentlemen, added their contribution to carry out the friendly purpose with which the Governing Board has gratified all Ibero-Americans—the Seville Exposition, a magnificent spectacle which showed the world the two phases of Iberian civilization, the European and the American (a peaceful achievement more enduring than that of any other race), coincided with the first stage of the competition; and in this, the second, the idealistic will of the Brazilian people has erected, on one of the highest peaks surrounding this beautiful city, the image of Christ the Redeemer, with arms outstretched to all men.

The hero's native country could not fail to recognize the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse project; in 1929 the 455 designs submitted in the first stage of the competition at Madrid were exhibited in Rome, at the request of the august mother of Latin culture.

With such support and patronage the Columbus Lighthouse, a manifestation not only of American solidarity but, beyond that, of human solidarity, makes a definite advance with this brilliant ceremony. I have great pleasure in communicating to you that according to an official dispatch from the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Dominican Republic, dated October 15, the Supreme Land Tribunal of the nation "has finished clearing up the legal status of the lands upon which the Columbus Lighthouse is to be located."

The site selected for the Columbus Lighthouse, on the eastern bank of the Ozama River, is the same on which the brother of the Great Admiral, Bartholomew Columbus, founded in 1497 the first city of Santo Domingo de Guzmán, later destroyed by a hurricane. There can be seen the ruins of the first stone chapel for Christian worship in the Western Hemisphere; the prows of Columbus's caravels glided over the waters of that river, on whose western bank stand the walls of the alcazar built by the navigator's eldest son, Diego Columbus (through whose veins flowed Portuguese blood), and also the remarkably well-preserved Tower of Homage, where, according to legend, Columbus suffered humiliating imprisonment. Within the old city walls is the second Santo Domingo, with its cathedral, churches, fortress, and the remnants of its university, the first to be founded in America and a precious shrine of profound Spanish-American culture. The elements have never been able to batter down these noble foundation stones, not even during the recent hurricane which wrought havoc in the city, and they still rise skyward as firmly as the culture of which they speak with mute eloquence remains deeply rooted in the spirit of its inhabitants.



Such will be the setting of the Columbus Lighthouse. Here Spain evolved the economic plans and trained the men for the conquest and exploration of a territory extending from 40° north latitude to 40° south latitude; from the heart of the United States to the mighty River Plate, thus establishing the interlacing ties which today unite the Dominican Republic with the other American nations in brotherhood. The plant nurtured in Hispaniola flourished in imperial splendor in Mexico, whither Hernán Cortés, who received his spurs of knighthood in Santo Domingo, transplanted the sugar industry; it flowered in Lima, whereto the architect of the Metropolitan Cathedral of the Primate of the Indies was attracted, and gave fruits of divine grace in Santa Rosa, born shortly after the arrival of her parents from Hispaniola.

The Columbus Memorial Lighthouse will be a joint undertaking of us Americans. Indeed, not even the difficulties now besetting us could retard the happy moment when all our flags will be unfurled to the winds. No, the hero whom we are thus to honor, who united us all in the same splendid civilization, stimulates us with the example of his perseverance and faith which gave humanity a New World. A demonstration of the civilization of America, those stones, steadfast and aspiring, will proclaim a spirit of Pan American cooperation, worthy and sincere because it is based on mutual respect, reciprocal confidence and common belief in law. That the light which will be kindled on its summit, a guide to voyagers of sea and sky, be a perpetual beacon of justice for each and all of the nations of America is the sincerest wish of the Dominican people, on whose behalf I express heartfelt appreciation to our sister nations for the honor bestowed upon us.

### III

ADDRESS OF HIS EXCELLENCY SEÑOR DON ALFONSO REYES, AMBASSADOR OF MEXICO IN BRAZIL

#### I

The Brazilians have a charming manner all their own when granting a request from some one who seeks a favor. As we can not define it, it appears almost like a magic art. The Andalusians in their expressive phrase would say that the Brazilians *tienen buena sombra*, or *tienen ángel*. Happy is he who enjoys the privilege of Brazilian hospitality and acquaintance, for they smooth away all harshness and lend to daily contacts a stimulating and indefinable poetic sweetness which gives wings to the spirit. In the midst of this strenuous life, while all rhythm grows faster and seems to become more and more abrupt, the Brazilians are borne along a smiling stream of kindness which sets everything in its proper perspective and in its natural relations. The Brazilian, even the illiterate and the unfortunate, dispels an aura of

sympathy and understanding which is almost the same as culture and is, so to speak, civilization through fineness of perception. If now we rise in the social scale and add to this precious material all the beauties of refinement and study, we shall have a result as pleasing and as marvelous and carefully wrought as those carved coconuts of Alagoas, which one never fails to admire. Nothing remains to be said concerning the enchantments of Guanabara Bay, Corcovado, and the Sugar Loaf, the altars on which each vessel hangs in passing its tribute of admiration, as on a shrine. Notwithstanding the fame of this harbor, the greatest enchantment of Brazil certainly lies in the innermost thoughts of the Brazilian soul, thoughts intermingled in that golden haze in which beauty and ideals are merged.

It is not surprising, then, that before plunging into my subject I should hasten to fulfil a pleasant duty, that of expressing publicly in the name of Mr. Albert Kelsey, his colleagues, and the Pan American Union whose special commissioner Mr. Kelsey is, gratitude for the attentions, solicitude, efficiency, and cordial good will manifested by the Brazilian Government and all the institutions and persons who have had to do with this climax of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse competition. Permit me also to add my personal thanks for the opportunity to associate the name of Mexico with this important occasion.

You have heard from well-informed persons the history of the event which brings us together. Now I propose to recall to your memory the ideas which are its atmosphere. I shall, indeed, be happy if I faithfully interpret the thoughts and emotions which the mere name of Columbus awakes in this distinguished audience.

## II

From the time that the human race left written traces of its dreams, America was divined as by presentiment. Man's imagination foretold America 3,000 years B. C., when the mythological Anubis presided over the dead in some mysterious part of the west. The idea that in the west there still remained something to discover—something that at times took alluring form, like the Isles of the Blest, and at others seemed repulsive and terrible, like a dark, gloomy sea—comes from the most ancient documents of the Egyptians. As the Phoenicians coasted around the western Mediterranean or as later the Atlantic islands were discovered by European navigators, the mystery became more remote, like the shadow of a moving cloud, and took refuge farther and farther to the west. Such is the meaning of the *Plus Ultra* which replaced the *Ne Plus Ultra* of the Pillars of Hercules. The vague idea which we discover in that most ancient Mediterranean literature, the Egyptian, penetrated Greek literature, where it is seen chiefly in the fateful *Atlantis* of Plato; it runs through

Latin literature, where Seneca in his *Medea* announces that the sea will open and new worlds appear; and the legend, with its indecisive and changing details, its Sargasso sea, its shallow and unnavigable ocean, its Fortunate Isles, is enriched through the Middle Ages with the stories of the Utopian islands: the Isle of St. Brandan, or of the Birds (the first version of Penguin Island), that of the Seven Cities, Antilia and Brazil, the two last being names which history was later to vindicate; and the story is picked up in passing by the Renaissance poets—for instance, Luigi Pulci, in *Il Morgante Maggiore*—until finally its mixture of truth and fable was deposited in the hands of Christopher Columbus when, in 1482, he opened the pages of the *Imago Mundi*, the work of Cardinal Ailly. This was almost Columbus's breviary and might be called a compendium of all the yearnings up to that time concerning the paradises awaiting would-be discoverers. Apparently unrelated fragments of the truth struggled to integrate themselves in the minds of men. The earth seemed to suggest to its creatures the feeling of its complete image, the idea of Plato remembered as in a dream. For ere America became that reality which at times drives us to distraction and at times exalts us with enthusiasm, she seems to have been a creation of the poets, a puzzle of the geographers, an inexplicable aspiration of man. The presage of the new lands filled all minds; it shone in the eyes of mariners and gave to even the grasping enterprises of commerce the aura of mighty deeds. And this presage was writ large in heaven and earth. Would you see it in the sky? Remember that divination of new stars which had been suggested from the time of Aristotle to that of Alfonso the Wise; which preoccupied Lucan; which shone in the constellation of the Four Cardinal Virtues—that image anticipatory of the Southern Cross—from the depth of Dantean nights; and which, after the discovery, were seen everywhere on the horizons of poetry and art, sparkling in the *Araucana* of Ercilla as in the *Grandeza Mexicana* of Valbuena, in the *De Orbe Novo* of Peter Martyr, in *Os Lusíadas* of Camoens, in the *Epistolae* of La Boetie, or in the famous sonnet of *Les Trophées*.<sup>1</sup>

## III

But to reach Christopher Columbus one has to struggle through a thicket of legends; for the legendary Columbus had already appeared in the time of Fray Bartolomé de Las Casas, and it is he whom school-children know. The real Columbus begins with Alexander von Humboldt, and in our days comes to us through Henry Vignaud, whether we accept or not the latter's interpretations of the genesis of the discovery. Let us leave on one side the exaggerations of one party or the other; let us forget the idea that Columbus was born in

<sup>1</sup> By José María Heredia.—EDITOR.

Pontevedra, which is the entertainment of the idle; let us pay no attention to the illustrious parentage which was later ascribed to him, nor believe that as a boy he served in war and at sea, under the orders of the good King René or of the admirals named Columbus who were not even Italians; let us admit that part of his erudition was second hand, for after all this does not detract from his greatness; let us likewise forget the famous scene of Queen Isabella's jewels, which existed only on the palette of painters. (It is, indeed, true that this symbolic scene, notwithstanding its falseness, is not opposed to our historical sense, but rather strengthens it, because the picture suggests the true division of affairs in the Spanish Government of that time: King Ferdinand immersed in palace intrigues, matching his strength against others' with all the wiles and subtleties which Gratian ascribes to him; while Queen Isabella—our Isabella—dreams of wings added to Spanish valor, of lances everywhere on land and of sails covering the sea.) But let us cling to what has been proved true. Let us keep the boy, the son of weavers, at the family loom, and let us keep him in the family trade, according to the wise practice of the common people, until he is 22 years old, more or less. He received no scientific education, nor was he a sailor from childhood; perhaps he came to be one by chance when, travelling possibly in the cloth trade, he was shipwrecked on the coast of Portugal—a country which, at that time, was the valiant mother of all geographical exploration. Columbus never became the most profound cosmographer of his time, but neither was he the worst, although he was incapable of measuring a degree on the earth's surface—it is not indispensable for generals to know how to aim a cannon with their own hands. Let us admit, following Gratian, that beside Columbus the "hero" Amerigo Vespuccio (who is not responsible for the fact that his name was given to our continent and never knew it) appears a modest, silent man; he was much more completely and carefully instructed in science and had a narrative style as interesting as his voyages. Beside that cosmopolitan Italian, enterprising, imaginative, and visionary in his ideas, with no more wealth than inspiration, the Andalusian Martín Alonso Pinzón is the professional, the technical expert, the man of experience and wealth. In Columbus, we find something like the inevitability of natural forces. Not without roughness, not without madness, his great figure stands out in the midst of an epoch charged with possibilities in which everything began to appear feasible to man. At his side, the Pinzón brothers, to whom the great deed owes much more than is commonly thought, are the Castor and Pollux of the discovery. Let us not regard Christopher Columbus as an isolated man, providentially fallen from heaven with a new world in his head. It is true that he talked of unknown lands "as if he had them in a box," according to a picturesque phrase

of Martín Alonso; but he was not the first who spoke of them, and in this and in many other things he did no more than wash the sands of ancient tradition and keep the grains of gold. On looking at Columbus, we see about him a whole throng of wise and happy adventurers who prepare him, assist him, and follow him. The Columbus Memorial Lighthouse will illuminate in memory not the egoistic figure of a demigod who crushed human beings underfoot, but that of a man grasping by the hand other men who explain and share his glory.

## IV

Let us carefully analyze this great event. Let us take apart the laurel wreath brought as a tribute to Columbus, and trace the antecedents of the 12th of October.

1. *The mysticism of the west*.—We have already discussed the vague idea embedded in Mediterranean thought, an idea productive of myths which, with the aid of medieval imagination, brought forth a host of fascinating islands. Among these islands there was an Atlantis—a magnet still attracting the investigations of geographers and at the time of the Renaissance drawing men toward America.

2. *Geographical discoveries*.—From the twelfth to the fifteenth century, especially in the latter, there was a series of discoveries, and thus the face of the earth became better and better known. The west coast of Africa was traced little by little. From the Orient there arrived overwhelming tales; the journey to the lands of Prester John, the picture of exotic countries, broke the classic molds of history. The Christian missions of the thirteenth century gave reply to the Mongolian invasions and caused much comment. Marco Polo blazed the trail of modern Asiatic geography which Oderico de Poderdone completed and adorned with magnificent tales. In the fifteenth century the Italy of Columbus already had a distinguished tradition of explorers and cartographers; travels were the great public and private enterprise; geographical ideas were breathed in with the air, and every pilot was a discoverer.

3. *The unknown colonies*.—It is admitted that possibly America had been discovered, although the world was not yet ready to make use of the fact, long before the time of Christopher Columbus. Such early discoveries probably came about through the course of sea currents, of water highways on which lost barks were borne. There are two sides to this question: the Pacific and the Atlantic. The hypothesis of contact between America and Asia across the Pacific (the reeds which the storm tears from the coast of Japan are wafted by the waves to California) does not go beyond anthropological and linguistic conjectures which, nevertheless, are very seductive. As for

the theory of De Guignes, who in the eighteenth century sought to identify Mexico with the Fu-Sang of the Chinese, this has been completely refuted. Let us now consider the hypothesis (indeed, it is more than a hypothesis) of contact with Europe across the Atlantic, a subject better known to us and of much more interest, because the memory of this contact might have reached Columbus as a tradition. In the Atlantic there are three currents, three routes which lead from the Old to the New World—that of the Canaries, which, with favorable winds, leads to the Antilles, was the route of Columbus; that which, crossing the countercurrent of Guinea, arrives by way of the southern equatorial current at the coasts of Brazil, was the route of Ojeda and Álvarez Cabral; and the third, which leaves the shores of the British Isles or Iceland, and reaches the coast of Greenland, Labrador, or Newfoundland. This last was the route which Corte Real was to follow, but long since it might have been pursued by Normans, Basques, and Rochelais. From the Saga of Erik the Red, it may be deduced that the Scandinavian adventurers traversed it, but to seek in America the traces of those fiery pirates, merely from the confused hints of this northern epic, would be a vain endeavor. It would seem that, without ever colonizing, they limited themselves to rapid incursions. An exception is the case of Greenland which, settled in the course of three centuries, slowly detached itself from Europe under the attacks of the Eskimos, so that by the fourteenth century it had already become again a mysterious land.

4. *The economic imperative.*—While half humanity delighted itself with the surprises of the Renaissance, the other—the world of merchants and adventurers—lived in a frenzy of action, always longing for the aromatic isles of spice. Indeed, the route to the Indies, the necessity of finding a maritime outlet for trade with India, a necessity apparent in Europe after Constantinople fell into the power of the Turks, was a general preoccupation. The consequences of this desire—and observe here the connection of historical facts—were to be the discovery of the New World and the route around the Cape of Good Hope. From Italy, whose mercantile genius had attained the eloquence of its poetry, there sallied forth from time to time geographers more or less well trained to offer to whatever monarch might desire it a new project, a new solution of the enigma of the passage to the east.

5. *Militant humanism.*—Since Italy was the spokesman of the epoch, what happened there happened to the world. Events challenged intelligence. Besides the humanists who traveled only in books, there were others to whom we may apply the name of militant humanists, because they purposely followed the quest of science and traveled, so to speak, under the ægis of wise men. Like our polar heroes, Ciriaco Pizzicolli d'Ancona—to name but one in a hundred—

did not seek any profit from his voyages, but simply intellectual interest, and even left his merchant's house to start out on a savant's tour, collecting documents in Italy, Greece, the Ægean and Asia Minor.

In this environment, which already contains the embryo of the discovery, appears the opportune hand of the magician, who makes a few passes in the air, fuses the vague scattered elements, and offers a coin on his palm.

## v

Columbus inherited the papers of his father-in-law Perestrello and with the papers much news. He talked eagerly with old sailors and everywhere—in books, as well as in streets—he encountered what we may continue to call the presage of America. Oviedo and Garcilaso the Inca tell of a shipwrecked sailor who died in Columbus's house, bequeathing him documents. Pedro Velasco, the pilot, gave Columbus at La Rabida the approximate bearings of the Island of Flores, 150 leagues from Fayal. The one-eyed man of Santa Maria and the Galician in Murcia talked of some ships which had been wrecked on unknown shores, shores which might well be those of Newfoundland. And there was a sailor from Madeira, whose testimony seemed visionary, for on every journey he swore that he discerned unexplored lands. Vásquez de la Frontera, when he was sailing in the Portuguese service, also made certain observations. Oh, what eagerness to discuss news, to mingle with the sailors in the ports, to talk with the old sea dogs, to mix even with the offscourings of humanity to be found in the taverns telling of shipwrecks and the miracles of the sea! These dregs of reality were spiced with a little mythology. There was talk with bated breath of two rich and goodly lands, Antilia and Cipango. Antilia—*ante isla*, "island placed before," from which were derived first *Antilla* and then *Haiti*—was a fabulous land which came to prefigure America. Cipango, the country most easy of access, which should be found on the way to Asia, represented the route to India. The die was cast for the least dangerous, but the most audacious turned up. Searching for Cipango, the Discoverer found Antilia! Some say that in his inmost mind, Columbus, in the beginning at least, also had his ideas about Antilia, even though when he found land he was already sure that he was nearing the domains of the Great Khan. This can not be demonstrated, but it is not impossible.

If you still wish to convince yourself more completely of the part which imagination played in the discovery, look at the favorite books of the Great Discoverer. The list, I assure you, is edifying. Marco Polo overwhelms him with glittering descriptions; in his book you will find cities of marble, gold, silver, and precious stones, and the picture of Cathay which the Middle Ages filled with monsters and

dragons; the *Historia Rerum* of Pius II is no less exciting; and the *Imago Mundi* of Cardinal Ailly will give you your fill of griffins, dragons, basilisks, licorns and unicorns, many-headed serpents, and other terrifying creatures. In the mind of Columbus visions and realities mingled. Like the elect and the prophets, he heard voices on his fourth voyage. Meantime he sought for Eden in the Antilles; he hoped for the opulent lands which Marco Polo had offered him, and he would not have been surprised to find the country of the Amazons and of the Anthropophagi. His contemporaries believed that the Caribbean islands were the home of the Polyphemi and Lestrigonians. Santo Domingo was turned into Ophir and the source of King Solomon's wealth. At the mouth of the Orinoco, Columbus believed himself near Paradise, which an illness prevented him from reaching. But let us not hesitate to say it! A slight exaggeration does not offend the decorum of history; the discovery is the result of both scientific errors and poetical divination. Such is the complexity of human affairs; so reason must bow down as something greater shines through.

## VI

For America to become possible, for the discovery to burst into being, it was needful that the spark of dreams should set off the powder of reality. Who made the discovery possible? Let us leave aside symbolical explanations, kings and gentlemen who gave only good words, and let us come down to matters of fact. The discovery, like all great Iberian deeds, was the result of private initiative. Let us look again at the Pinzón brothers. The disputes between Martín Alonso Pinzón and Columbus are of no importance to history. There are even those who pretend that Martín Alonso led Columbus over a route already known to the former. The important thing is to take into account that Martín Alonso was a rich shipowner, well known for his seamanship and honesty; that he belonged to a numerous and respected family; that he was a studious man well connected with the savants in Rome and when necessary a brave soldier, as is proved by his actions against the Portuguese; that of the three caravels of the discovery, two were his; that, furthermore, he invested a third part of his worldly wealth in the expedition; that, thanks to his personal influence, his brothers and Juan de la Cosa, illustrious navigators, decided to embark with Columbus; and finally that only because of his personal prestige was it possible to recruit men for the trip, since it is well known that before he intervened not a single member of the crew could be obtained, and this in spite of the royal decree which offered amnesty to all accused men who desired to enlist under Columbus.



Throughout Hispanic history private initiative is always in the forefront, and to say private initiative is to say the people, the Unknown Soldier, *Juan Español*. Private initiative brought about the Reconquest; its hero, the Cid Campeador, had been outlawed by the King; however, at each new victory over the Moors he sent presents to the monarch, because Spanish individualism is not anarchical nor rancorous. For a time, with Ferdinand and Isabella—who were homely people of true Spanish birth—private initiative ascended the throne, and then the monarchy began to achieve the unity of the kingdom. But Ferdinand and Isabella were unfortunate in their descendants, and the foreign dynasties, the professional dynasties, who succeeded them, either twisted the axis of Spanish life or were unsuccessful in making points of contact between Spain and Europe. Centuries later, at the time of the war of independence against Napoleon, once again private initiative came forward to expel the foreign invader, in despite of the monarch himself, who had already surrendered.

To return to our America. At the hour of the discovery, we may say that private initiative was exemplified in the Pinzón brothers; at the time of the conquest, in Hernán Cortés, who began by rebelling against Gov. Diego Velásquez and commenced a journey to Mexico on his own responsibility. What were the adelantados, the flower of the *conquistadores*, but private adventurers, who fought on their own account and at their own risk and whom the Crown sanctioned if they were successful, as Alfonso VI sanctioned the doubtful deeds of the Cid when they had been accomplished? Thus we have a wave of private initiative, later communicated to the American colonies, with the result, for instance, that the first settlers of New Spain, immediately after the conquest in the sixteenth century, felt themselves different from and rivals to the recently arrived Peninsular officials. And from this phenomenon, which had its equivalent in every colony, was derived the germ of the new patriotism and the desire for liberty. The Spanish Empire was not maintained by the administration nor by maritime power, which indeed Spain never had. The Spanish Empire was a miracle with no physical basis which lasted three centuries only because of respect for the monarchical idea and for Catholicism, concepts deeply graven in the mind of the Spanish people. Deficient, indeed, was the work of colonization; half Spain's inhabitants journeyed to America, where they lived as they saw fit. Hence new nations were born. Let us bless the commercial and economic inefficiency which produced them, and let us also bless our Iberian mother countries, Spain and Portugal, since independence signifies a break with the past much more than a break with the mother country.

## VII

After America was discovered, what should be done with it? Over all conquests of matter the mind is supreme. Portugal and Spain were roused by the discoveries, which soon took on an evangelical character. The medieval crusades were succeeded by the American crusade, and Pope Alexander divided between the two monarchies the lands already found and to be found. From this moment America—whatever the contingencies and errors of history—commenced to take form before the eyes of humanity as a place where justice might be more nearly equal, liberty better understood, happiness more complete and shared by more of the people—in other words, a dreamed-of Republic, a Utopia. The idea of America was impressive to the outstanding Europeans of that time. How many dreams unfolded! As soon as America, like a nereid, lifted her head, there was an almost overwhelming production of tales of Utopia. The humanists revived the style of the political discussion in the manner of Plato and began, their thoughts fixed on America, to dream of a more fortunate humanity. Dogmas were crushed by the sight of new customs. The possibility of other modes of civilization more faithful to the earth was conceived and the *Naked Philosopher* of Peter Martyr prepared the way for the *Good Savage* of Rousseau, as full of natural virtue as a fruit of juice. American exoticism, which Chinard, Dermenghem, and others had carefully studied, seasoned literature with a new flavor. Unlike oriental exoticism, which always limited itself to the picturesque, this American exoticism had a moral purpose; that is, European literature sought to prove by means of America an *a priori* conception—the age of gold of the ancients, the state of natural innocence, without acknowledging the heretical aspect of this notion. Who amongst the most noble figures of European thought could escape the mirage of America? America left its mark on Erasmus, on Thomas More, Rabelais, Tasso, Montaigne, Bacon, and Tomaso Campanella. If Juan Ponce de León dreamed of finding a fountain of eternal youth in Florida, the philosophers asked of the New World a stimulus for the political perfecting of men. Such is the true American tradition on which it is our duty to insist.

The testimony of Montaigne is singularly expressive. In his soul was played the drama of America accompanied by that solemn music of thoughts which still move us. Montaigne recognized that the mere contrast between the things of the Old and the New World awakened in him that comprehension of all doctrines which Bacon and Shakespeare were to learn of him, that spirit of pardon, that

charity. During the youth of Montaigne America was becoming larger day by day, and gravitation toward America seemed to raise him above the moral level of his time. He read eagerly the stories of the chroniclers and, furthermore, as an official of Bordeaux, he saw and wondered at the articles and merchandise imported from the generous new land. In addition, one of his servants had lived 10 years in Brazil and recounted to him the customs of the New World. Always disposed to welcome a paradox, Montaigne wondered whether after all civilization were not an immense aberrance, if the American man, "the beautiful nude Inca and the Mexican clad in feathers," as Góngora said, were not nearer to the Creator, if customs did not have only a relative basis. And he concluded by describing the refinement and the art of the Edenlike towns of the Tupi-Guarani. Montaigne said to himself that those indigenes were cannibals, but questioned whether eating one's fellow beings were not preferable to enslaving and exploiting them as the civilized Europeans exploited nine-tenths of humanity. Although America tortured its prisoners of war, Europe, Montaigne thought, inflicted more tortures in the name of religion and of justice. And here you see, induced by contact with America, the mind of a representative European originating the preliminary outlines of the boldest and most advanced points of view held in our own times. This disagreement with the errors of European thought went on acquiring more strength. This atmosphere permeated Protestantism and Puritanism and, much more, Quakerism, which finally took refuge in America. What a radiant promise was the New World to all the discontented! While the merchants made their plans for gain, while the Christian apostles, of illustrious tradition in America, prepared their crusades for conversion, a whole people of dreamers was moving toward Utopia.

America, it may be said without exaggeration, was desired and discovered (I almost said invented) precisely as a field for the overflow of the great quixotic impulses which could not be contained within the old narrow limits of the world. The creators and discoverers of America were those whose bodies or souls were athirst, those who needed golden houses to satisfy their desire for luxury, or virgin souls in which to implant the idea of God. Later America continued to be a refuge of the persecuted: it was already the land in which an accusing eye could not hinder the regeneration of Cain; it was already the hospitable home for the proscribed Huguenots and other Protestants.

Now came European colonization. For three centuries the slow processes of germination weighed upon America; the ideal lived, but in a dormant condition. For although the seed appeared at the time

of the discovery, later, when spiritual energies could find an outlet only through the administration of the viceroys, that seed lay sleeping beneath the soil. But it was not dead: on the contrary. As the Americans won their independence, this ideal became more and more clear, definite, and universal. During the nineteenth century the greatest Utopians—whether spiritualists, socialists, or communists, whether their beliefs were true or mistaken—took their way to America as to a promised land, where the happiness to which they all aspired under different names might be realized without an effort. Even to-day the whole continent is an incarnation of hope and offers to Europe a home for its human overflow.

Either this is the meaning of history or history has no meaning. If it is not the meaning, it ought to be, and we Americans know it. Immediate necessities, surface misunderstandings, may lead us astray for a day or for a year and even for a hundred years; the great orbit will be unaffected. The declination of our America is as surely fixed as that of a star. America began as an ideal and continues to be an ideal. America is Utopia.

Remember with what emotion Wilhelm Meister entertained the idea of remaking his happiness in America. In the hands of Philina, the good seamstress, the scissors tremble at the mere thought of cutting out garments for those in the new colony. Lydia feels herself school-mistress for the new generation. The grave Montan thinks only of mines and mining. Behind them are pleasures and sufferings, the years of apprenticeship and the years of aimless travels. O, Goethe, profound poet! A light breeze dries the jubilant tears on the cheeks of Felix as he returns to life. Standing in the prow, Wilhelm Meister crosses his arms and, full of confidence in America, contemplates the horizon.

#### VIII

The lighthouse will rise in that lovely isle whose configuration, according to Peter Martyr, is that of a chestnut leaf. It is the island of Santo Domingo, the ancestral home of America, the primacy of the Indies, the chosen of the Admiral, which, according to Menéndez y Pelayo, received from heaven beauty with misfortune and many times had to remake itself through the storms of its history, struggling patiently and alone as if it knew itself reserved for great destinies. Now there will hasten to its coasts a pilgrimage of all the peoples of America, bearing stones for the tower of our alliance. That flag of light which moves over the water will mark the course for the sailor and throw high on the heavens the Utopian promise of America.

## IV

ADDRESS OF NESTOR E. DE FIGUEIREDO, PRESIDENT OF THE BRAZILIAN  
INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS

In this historic moment which brings the announcement of the name of the architect to whose lot has fallen the honor of interpreting the collective sentiment of the people of both Americas, the Brazilian commission collaborating with the members of the Jury of Award in the international competition for the selection of plans for the erection of a monumental lighthouse to the genius of Columbus, expresses to the Pan American Union and the Permanent Lighthouse Committee of the Union's Governing Board its gratitude for the compliment paid it and offers its highest praise to the spiritual discernment shown by those in charge of the competition. The Brazilian architects who are finding inspiration for the development of self-expression through the medium of art under the guidance of the Central Institute of Architects will always treasure as one of the most significant events in the history of their profession the honor conferred upon their country by the choice of Rio de Janeiro as the place for the meeting of the jury which has just made public the announcement destined to be one of the important events of the century.

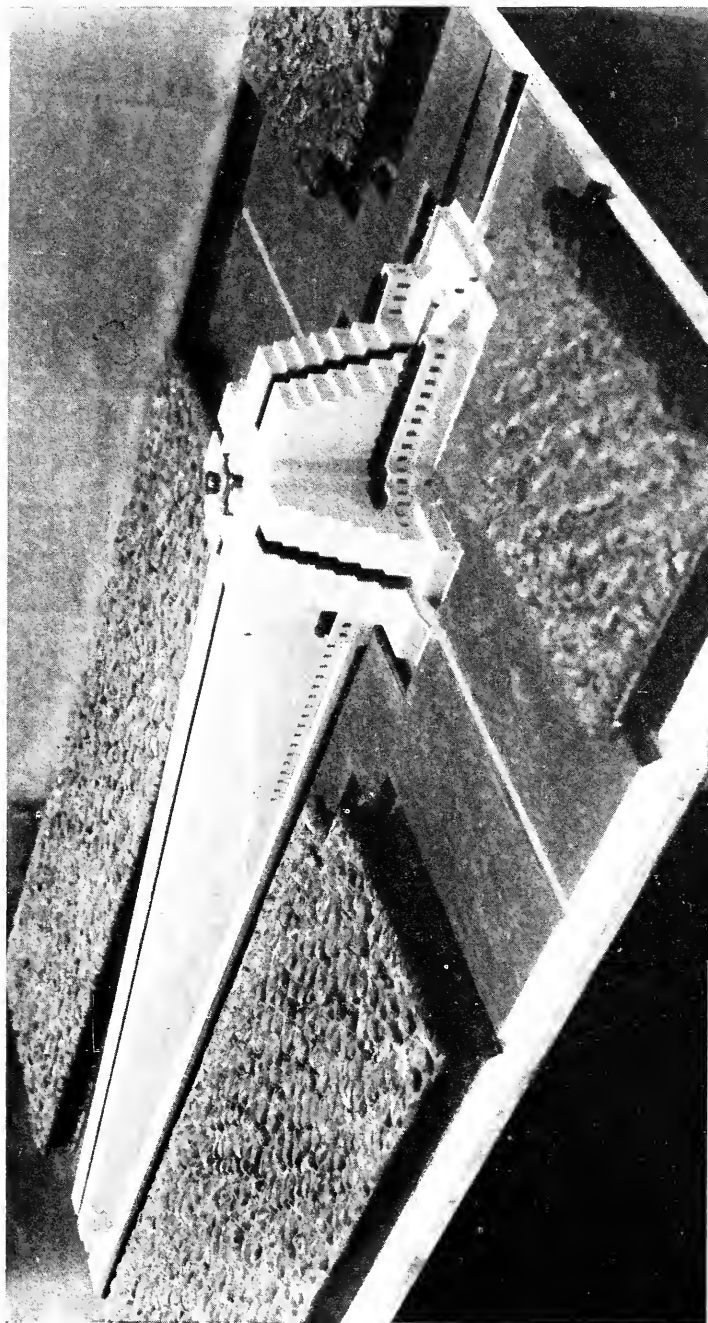
It is noteworthy that once again architects have been called upon to immortalize through their art the sublime achievement of one of the world's great figures; and the monument whose design has been chosen for this purpose will serve not only as a tribute to the moral grandeur of one man but will symbolize the ties which unite all the peoples of America.

Architecture is an art of deep social significance which reaches the soul through a philosophy all its own. Before the architect envisioned a monument worthy to stand forever there in Santo Domingo, his was the experience of having been transported to the highest realms of human thought. Then and only then did he create the design of a monument to the Great Navigator which would kindle in the souls of those who gazed upon it the divine flame of brotherly love.

Thus the united America disclosed to the world by the deed of the Great Discoverer, now four centuries later proclaims to posterity by the erection of this monument the imperishable glory of his name and the spirit of the present age.

All hail to the winner of the competition!

All hail to those who with heart and mind have devoted themselves to the task of bringing this project to a successful termination!



MODEL OF PREMIATED DESIGN FOR COLUMBUS LIGHTHOUSE

The international jury, in awarding the first prize to J. L. Cleave, stated: "Although expressions of new resources in construction characterizing our twentieth century are absent, one design, making wonderful use of light does take refuge in a directness, simplicity, and force worthy the great monuments of the ages. This design is symbolic but not to the point where symbolism interferes with the simple beauty of the work as architecture. Seen from the air or from environment, the simple mass becomes a noble elemental feature of the ground in character worthy of the steadiest courage and faith of the Great Discoverer it commemorates."

# THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE DESIGN

By J. L. GLEAVE, A. R. I. B. A.

*Author of the Design*

## THE IDEAL

THIS is an attempt to build the greatest monument the world has ever seen. This is a monument to the greatest ideal in the world—"Progress to God." This is a monument to Christopher Columbus, the chosen personification of that greatest ideal. *Progress*—the innate urge; the irresistible aim of man since man was. *God*—the mysterious power behind the world; that made the world; that is the world and that will end the world.

*Progress to God*—the blind urge to progress that spurs us on to the unknown end; that makes each discovery a step forward into the dark and each invention another length of pathway lighted, until everything is explained, and we know who we are, what we are, and why we are.

## INTERPRETATION OF THE IDEAL

Having this ideal of Progress to God, the problem is to convert it to some striking and tangible form which will emphasize it to the people who already realize it, and overwhelmingly convince those who do not. How can this be done? Surely only by taking some man (in this case Christopher Columbus, who of all men in history best expresses this ideal) and, using him as the central theme, building up the monument round him as the Greeks built their Parthenon around the central theme of Pallas Athene, who embodied the ideals of their age. And so we begin. We show Columbus starting from nothing, building up in the form of a cross, surging forward through pain, struggles, disappointments to achievement and a triumphant end, shooting up to God. We show him sharp, clear, and distinct. The vivid germ of the monument, and round this germ, we show his spirit, like a halo. We show it by space indefinable, intangible, limitless, building up round his material life still in the form of the Cross, still symbolizing his ideals. And round his spirit, guided by it, shaped by it, we get Modern Progress, the increasing, irresistible surge of the world through the centuries sweeping towards the light—the point at which, like Columbus, our aspirations shoot upwards to God.

Does the form need justifying? Is it not obvious? Could the great mass be anything but Progress, the march forward, the strong sweep

forward and upward? And can the Cross be anything but God? The Cross permeates the whole country with its atmosphere. The Cross means everything that is good. Whatever good spiritual or material qualities are in the world are symbolized by the Cross. What a great start it gives a monument to take the form of a Cross! One glance and the visitor is prepared. He is struck at once with a proper mood which can be played on. The Cross can never be cheap. One light remark which can easily be made by one of the thousands of visitors about any other symbol and the monument is ruined. No one dare sneer at the Cross. Las Casas wrote in his diary: "They made it a practice in all those countries and islands when they went on shore, to set up and leave there a cross." Columbus himself wrote: "You shall set up crosses on all roads and pathways, for as God be praised, this land belongs to Christians, the remembrance of it must be preserved to all time." That in itself is enough.

#### DESCRIPTION

Let us follow the progress of a visitor through the monument. He stands between the embracing arms of the loggias, in the court of Columbus, gathering courage to enter the great slit. Above him towers the great mass; he can not mistake the meaning. Not only its very shape but the hundreds of names carved all over the surface mark it unmistakably as Progress. He would be fascinated by the hieroglyphic names, deeds; hundreds of them, showing the building up, century by century, from Columbus's time to our own. Einstein, Lindbergh, Mozart, Pizarro, only one small panel for each. All the nations of the world; all the languages of the world. How small he would feel! How unimportant! Venturing finally into the slit, between the great rough, red walls, he would be attracted directly to the brilliant tomb in the center of the chapel, in the heart of the monument. Around it a great encircling sheet of light through which he would glimpse the indescribable richness of the tomb itself—the gem in the center of the whole 2,500-acre layout. On each side of him the entrances to the museum and libraries, everything peculiarly connected with Columbus being at this low level. And passing the tomb, he would come to the great canyon of Columbus. Along the center runs the long, serpentlike black-green granite tail of sculpture, on which he follows the material life of Columbus rising out of the pebbly, sandy floor of the canyon. The walls are of a very rough texture, deep earthy red in color. The uncanny gloom, the deathly silence, the overawing peace, perfect peace that transfers him down the ages to Columbus's own time; that makes him a participant in the very spirit of Columbus; that makes him feel the confinement, the gloom, the superstition of that age, and as they did, gathering hope and courage from the view of present progress, high above his



head. And then, rising to the top of the monument, he would be struck with the openness of modern progress, and gazing down from the heights, see far below, the thin, threadlike, unquenchable spirit of Columbus, from which the whole monument takes its form, gathering inspiration thereupon according to his nature, and the walk along to the great beacon, the altar of modern progress. Would he see the symbolism in the 21 spokes of the encircling brazier? The whole monument is full of symbolism. Everything means something. Not

J. L. GLEAVE

English architect whose design for the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse was awarded first prize in the final stage of the international architectural competition.



Copyright by Emmanuel Levy

the crude sentimental variety which labels everything. If a thing is labeled, a man would forget it by the time he reached the ground. If, out of all the monument, he discovers one thing for himself, he will remember it all his life, and then tell his children. And when he finally reached the ground and took a last look, what thoughts the monument might conjure up in his mind. An Aztec Serpent! An Egyptian Sphinx! A conventionalized human body lying prostrate, brain in the head held proudly up looking for new worlds to conquer!

The very shape reminiscent of airplanes, ships, motor cars—an absolute symbol of modern movement. And add to all this the climatic conditions, sometimes hazy and blurred; sometimes sharp and distinct; sometimes a heavy leaden look like the somber march of civilization viewed over the centuries. Sometimes moving quickly, vividly, as the breath-taking speed of modern progress appears to-day. Perhaps he would be there to see the great flash along the canyon as the sun takes its axis. These thoughts seem endless.

#### BIRD'S-EYE VIEW

Imagine the first sight of land from a trans-Atlantic air flight. A tremendous cross inlaid in the ground. A double cross, showing the parallel theme. A cross of an elongated shape, giving the idea of progress. The whole the symbol of Columbus. From one's first sight it reads exactly the same as at close quarters. Surely a most important point. It might be amusing in an exhibition to have something that changes as one gets closer, such as a cross from a distance, a ship close to, but it would not have the enduring qualities necessary for a monument of this kind, where the ideal must be clear and simple in itself, carried forward ruthlessly to its logical and overwhelming conclusion. A case where monotony is not monotony, but unity, and a supreme singleness of purpose, like the Pyramids. The roads, airport, seaport, and all other buildings are toned in with the forest. Only the cross is white and vivid, like a flashing sword inlaid in the ground. Has not every Christian member of the Church which built the Americas been signed as a token of faith with the sign of the Cross, and is it not a wonderful idea that the Americas as a whole should be signed with the sign of the Cross, so that a traveler at his first view of land knows that their ideals are also bound up with God? In olden times to commemorate anything they set up crosses, market crosses, town crosses, memorial crosses, with slight variations to suit the individual circumstances. As they did, so do we. This is the first of the air crosses.

#### COLOR

Imagine the green background of the jungle, slashed across with the light green cross, carrying the vivid creamy-white cross of the monument's mass, picked out in the center with vivid gold, purples, and reds, like a gem set in the heart of the cross. The great slits of the canyons a deep, earthy red color, telling for miles against the outer mass, creamy yellow at the base, toning to white toward the center, with the hieroglyphic lettering brought out in reds and blues and greens, darker at the top, fading off to the bottom.



PORTRAIT OF COLUMBUS, BY ANTONIO DEL RINCÓN

If the authenticity of this portrait could be established, it would be the most important of the Admiral. It is extremely old and has been reproduced innumerable times. From time immemorial it has been in what was until recently the private library of the Kings of Spain, and according to tradition, was painted by the artist Antonio del Rincón after Columbus's return from his second voyage. The first copies were published before the year 1600.

## LIGHTING EFFECTS

And again, what of the night? The two great cross sheets of blood red flame, forming the Cross of Columbus, surrounded by the blinding white but more indistinct Cross of Modern Progress around it, so that the same parallel and the same theme are kept up even at night. On cloudy nights, casting a reflected cross on the sky, hovering over all Santo Domingo and when clouds are high, casting up a more blurred, but tremendous cross, a blood-red brother of the Southern Cross. Even the effect of the ordinary lighthouse light. One does not notice the actual revolving ray, only the pulsing effect it gives to the whole monument, making it look like a great beast crouching on the ground, panting evenly, ever awake and ever watchful.

## AS A SYMBOL

The most important point about a monument is that it should unmistakably refer to the man to whom it is built. It should be impossible to confuse it with any other subject, but I do not know of any monument that does. How could it? In this case one might show a galleon, with a cross on its sails, and it could mean any crusader; at close range one could have the name, perhaps a portrait figure, though this presupposes familiarity with the picture of the man and his deeds through the medium of books. But this is far from perfect. The whole monument, however, far or near, should unmistakably be embodied with the man. The only way is to make the whole thing take the form of his symbol. The only sign which would be unmistakably the United States of America would be the Stars and Stripes, which everyone recognizes as meaning all the ideals of the United States. The only monument which could unmistakably be Christianity is the Christian Cross, which everyone recognizes as meaning all the ideals of Christianity, which means in one symbol all the beliefs and all the teachings of the Bible. It is far finer to put the Christian Cross as a symbol on, say, a book than write "*Christianity*." It symbolizes the greatest act of Christ. It has a meaning. As yet, Columbus has no symbol, so I have invented one. It also has a meaning. It would be placed on history books, on biographies, on flags and monuments. To make a symbol seems rather a drastic thing to do, but obviously all symbols must be started some time, so why not Columbus now? At present, if a small child sees the Cross, he knows it means Christianity, as surely as if the name were written. If in the future he sees this long, pointed, double cross shape, he will know it is Columbus. I am convinced this is the only way.

This is a detailed black and white map of San Juan, Puerto Rico, showing the city grid, the harbor, and the fortifications. The map includes labels for 'SAN JUAN', 'PUERTO RICO', 'CARRETERA 'EL REINO' PROYECTADA', and 'MAR CARIBE'. A scale bar and a north arrow are also present.

Map of Santo Domingo and environs showing location of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse, indicated by a black square in the Paseo de las Naciones leading to the Pan American air-drome. References: 1, Homage Tower; 2, Colón Plaza; 3, Cathedral; 4, Ruins of the House of Diego Columbus; 5, Customhouse; 6, Ruins of Rosario Church; 7, Columbus Fountain; 8, Bastion February 27; 9, Presidential Palace.

## DETAILS AND SITE PLANNING

The site planning is very obvious from the drawings. As no specified instructions were given as to accommodation required, it was decided that only a suggestion as to the final layout should be shown, providing, of course, that approximately the correct size of the various units was maintained. Santo Domingo is a place with an atmosphere completely its own. To suit and maintain this the other units have been shown with what can only be described as a kind of confined spaciousness. The approaches, roads, are quite big enough, but are not monumental in, say, the Washington or Parisian sense of the word. Such a layout would be unreasonably expensive, would ruin the delicate air of Santo Domingo, and would take away the effect of the great Cross. They could be toned down and broken up in scale, colored if necessary, decided only after prolonged study from the air itself.

Granting the positions of the airport and seaport, and then fixing the distance to be traveled between them, it is surely far better to use the coast road as the main connecting road. Not only is it a more pleasant road to journey along, but it keeps the monument itself isolated—almost lost in the jungle. If the main traffic road were close to the monument, the desired effect could never be obtained. For this reason also the bridge is brought down close above the harbor mouth, joining up to the Calle Separación, and the planting is let run to seed, though actually carefully led in the way it should go. The roads leading to the monument itself are rough and pebbly, only the road from the water gate is topped, and there are wide, rough grass margins on each side of the roads, with the forest creeping up and back, so that the monument can easily be seen from the roads. The great mass shoots forwards, westward. Civilization always travels westward, as did Columbus. When it reaches the tomb it turns also north and south to both the Americas, and from it radiate, fan-shaped, 21 roads, one for each of the Pan American Republics. What a fine effect an array of flags round the cross at the end of these roads would have! Under the foot of the cross comes the great arena. If an arena is built for a huge concourse, and it is only half filled, the effect is ruinous, but it is worse still to have a small arena overcrowded. This point has received a great deal of consideration in the scheme. At a small gathering, the preacher would stand in the slit, backed up by the gleaming tomb set back in the darkness. If a large crowd gathered, the preacher would still stand on the steps, ranks of soldiers, bands and choirs on the court behind him, and the people on the terrace in front. If a tremendous

crowd gathered, the great cross over the ditch could be used also, so that however small or big the crowd, the monument seems suitable.

An organ has not been placed in the monument because of the cost, but how fine it would be if one could be installed! Perhaps a Columbus requiem could be played every night through the ages. Imagine it composed of a sevenfold phrase, starting very softly as the lights are turned on, swelling louder and louder, the lights climbing higher and higher, into a great final *Gloria in Excelsis* as the lights shoot up to heaven, lighting up the watching crowds below.

Accommodation for the lighting equipment would be provided in the hollow arms and head, as much as required. There is also a basement under the chapel entered from the roads at the bottom of the ditch, so that not only goods and machinery enter there, but perhaps the principal in some meeting, entering at this level, goes up the spiral staircase which rises to the top of the monument into the chapel, suddenly appearing before the waiting thousands from along the slit.

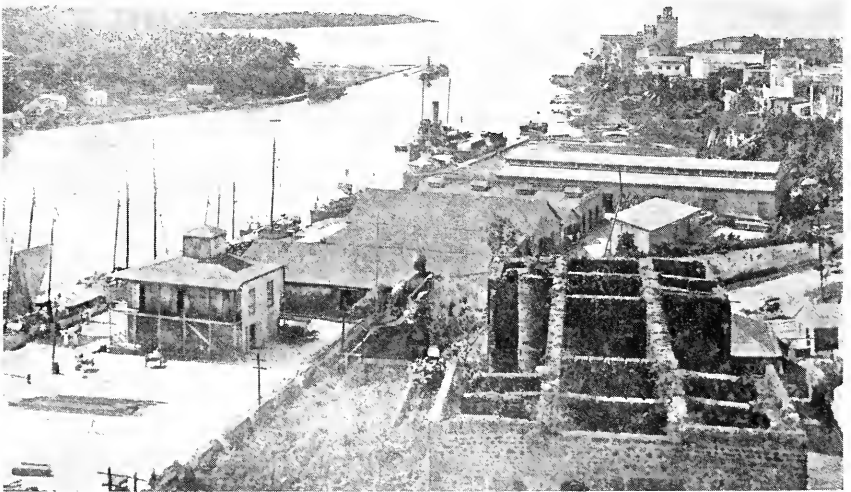
The mound asked for in the conditions has not been shown in the drawings or the model, as it was thought that a monument of this description was not in mind when the condition was framed. If it was thought necessary, it is obvious how the great cross could be raised above the ground level to the required height, giving a very fine, but unfortunately expensive effect. Definition from the air is given by the simple method of digging trenches in the ground.

#### CONSTRUCTION

As required by the conditions, the structure is steel framed, and to the steel framing are clamped great slabs of reinforced concrete with rebated joints. Concrete can be very fine nowadays, and naturally it was used. The most extensive tests, samples, and specifications would be tried. The steel work is all of a standard, flat section, forming a huge bird-cage effect of light members close together, cross braced, making a tremendously strong structure at little cost. The slabs of concrete would be cast on the ground beneath the position they finally take up. This construction has been gone into very carefully, and various experts agree as to its suitability.



Courtesy of Sumner Welles



#### SANTO DOMINGO

Founded in 1497, this city was the first permanent settlement in the New World. The site on the Ozama River was selected by Columbus after deciding that an earlier location surveyed during his first visit in 1492 was unsuitable. Upper: The entrance to the port and a section of the city as seen from the air. Lower: Looking toward the mouth of the Ozama River, from the city. The Memorial Lighthouse is to be erected a short distance inland from the river bank at the left. In the foreground is a part of the ruins of the House of Columbus.

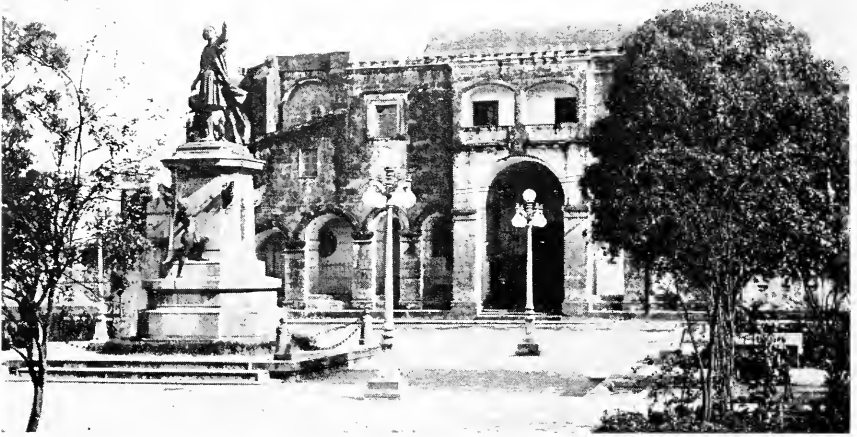


ANCIENT AND MODERN

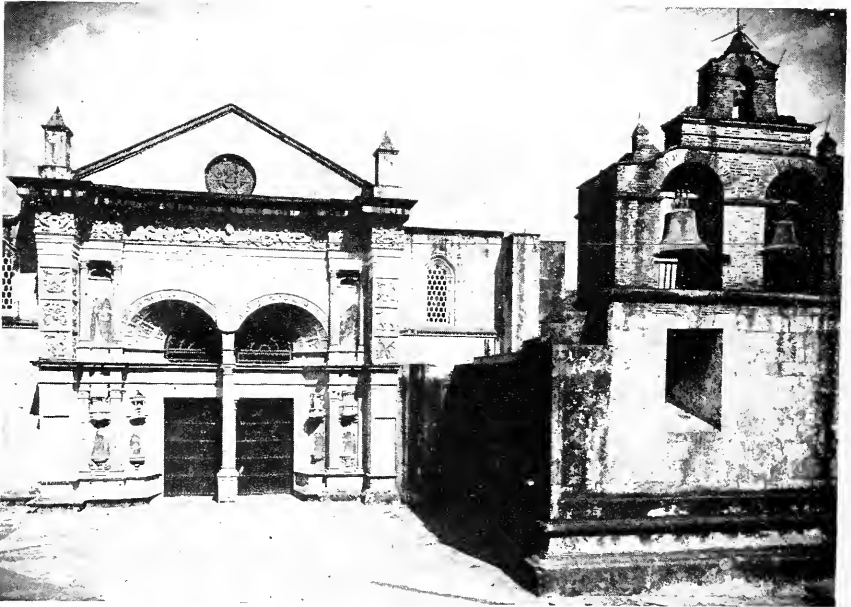


COLONIAL FORTIFICATIONS OF SANTO DOMINGO

At the mouth of the Ozama River, on the left bank, stands the old Fortress and Homage Tower upon which construction was begun in 1503. It is still used as a garrison for military forces and as a municipal prison. Lower: Bastion 27 de Febrero. Originally a fort in the city wall, it was converted into the main gateway to the city from the land side to commemorate a victory over the English expedition in May, 1655. Since February 27, 1844, when Dominican independence was proclaimed, it has been known by its present name.



Courtesy of Sumner Welles



Courtesy of Sumner Welles

#### COLUMBUS PARK AND CATHEDRAL, SANTO DOMINGO

In the old section of the city is the main plaza, in which a luxuriant growth of trees and flowers forms a tropical setting for the statue of the Great Admiral. The north entrance to the Cathedral, whose foundation stones were laid in 1514, faces the park. The frescoes surrounding the doorway of the façade have mellowed to soft tones from exposure to the elements during passing centuries. Within the nave is a memorial to Columbus.

ANCIENT AND MODERN



Courtesy of the Dominican Lighthouse Committee



INDEPENDENCE PARK AND AVENUE, SANTO DOMINGO

The city's charm is not confined to its colonial remains, as it possesses the comforts and conveniences of modern civilization, including well paved and illuminated streets, beautiful parks, recreation resorts, and fine residences. A network of modern highways extends from the capital in all directions, connecting it with other cities and regions and affording the visitor an opportunity of viewing the varied and marvelous Dominican scenery.

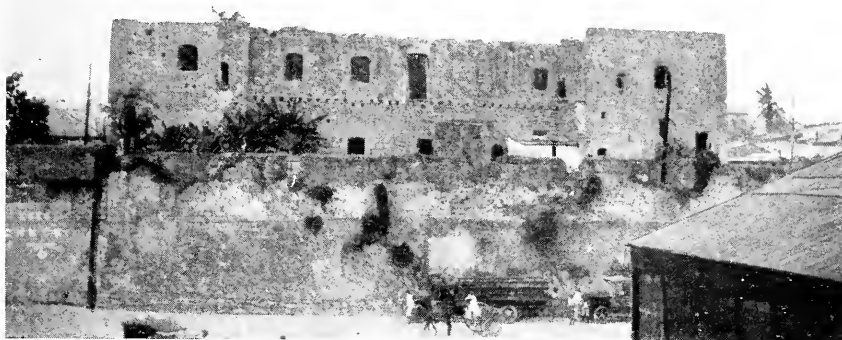


Courtesy of the Dominican Lighthouse Committee

#### THE HISTORIC CEIBA, SANTO DOMINGO

According to tradition, Columbus's caravel was moored to this great ceiba tree when he disembarked on the shore of the Ozama River at what is now the city of Santo Domingo.

## ANCIENT AND MODERN



### CASTLE OF DIEGO COLUMBUS, OR "HOUSE OF THE ADMIRAL"

This imposing edifice was built between 1510 and 1514 by Don Diego Colón, eldest son of the Great Discoverer, Viceroy, Second Admiral of the Indies, and Governor of the Island. The ruins rise on the banks of the Ozama River, near its mouth, on land given Don Diego by a Royal Mandate dated in Seville May 24, 1511. The Viceroy Don Diego established himself here with his wife, Doña María de Toledo y Rojas, the grand niece of King Ferdinand, and daughter of Don Fernando de Toledo, court official and brother of the Duke of Alba, with the splendid and brilliant retinue that surrounded the Vicereine, composed of a large number of noble ladies and gentlemen. Here also was quartered the corps of halbardiers that formed the Vicereine's guard. In the vast apartments were born their seven children, and here died in 1514 the Adelantado Don Bartolomé Colón and in 1549 Doña María de Toledo y Rojas. At present the castle is a huge and ruinous mass, with vines growing over its cracked gray stones and sheltering a multitude of doves.





Courtesy of the Dominican Lighthouse Committee



#### THE FORT OF SAN GERÓNIMO AND THE CHURCH OF SAN NICOLÁS

The fort of San Gerónimo is another of the historic ruins of great importance in Santo Domingo. The invasion of Sir Francis Drake, on January 11, 1586, made it necessary to prepare defenses on the parts of the shore near the city. This fort was constructed in 1628. The Church of San Nicolás de Bari was the first stone church built in the New World. It was erected between 1503 and 1508 by the illustrious and progressive Fray Nicolás de Ovando, Comendador de Lares in the Order of Alcántara, founder of 10 cities in "La Española" (or Hispaniola), and Governor of the island from 1502 to 1509.

## ANCIENT AND MODERN



### GOVERNMENT BUILDING AND PUBLIC SCHOOL

The new Constitution of the Dominican Republic was proclaimed on June 20, 1929. The executive branch of the Government is represented by the President of the Republic, who is elected by direct vote every four years, and a cabinet composed of seven Secretaries. The National Congress, composed of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, meets in the city of Santo Domingo on February 27 and August 16 each year, for a period of 90 days. The Judicial Power consists of the Supreme Court, the Court of Appeal, and other lesser tribunals. Public education is under the control of the National Council of Education, of which the president *ex officio* is the Secretary of Justice and Public Education, and the secretary is the Superintendent General of Education. Among the centers of higher education, the Central University of Santo Domingo is of special mention. Founded in 1558, it now has Schools of Law, Medicine, Odontology, Pharmacy, and Engineering.



## THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC



Courtesy of Sumner Welles



SANTIAGO DE LOS CABALLEROS

This is the second city of importance of the Dominican Republic and one of the most ancient on the island. The original city of Santiago was founded in 1500, but an earthquake in 1564 completely destroyed it. The present city, a commercial center, was built near the Río Yaque. It is famous for having been the scene of the battle of March 30, 1844, which decided the issue of national independence.



## ANCIENT AND MODERN



MOLE AT SAN PEDRO DE MACORÍS AND VIEW OF PUERTO PLATA

San Pedro de Macoris is a beautiful modern seaport situated in the southern part of the Republic. It may be considered the sugar center of the country, for in its vicinity are situated the principal sugar mills and plantations. Puerto Plata is situated on the north coast of the island, at the foot of the beautiful Mount Isabel de Torres, and was founded by Christopher Columbus. In 1605 it was destroyed by order of the King of Spain, but was rebuilt in 1750. To-day it is one of the finest, most picturesque, and important towns of the Republic.

## THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC



Courtesy of Sumner Welles

### NEW AUTOMOBILE HIGHWAYS

The considerable development of modern methods of communication has reduced distances in such a manner and has made transportation so pleasant that the number of those who look for new and agreeable impressions in foreign countries steadily grows greater. Numerous trips by automobile may be taken in the Dominican Republic. A few years ago a great highway was opened connecting Santo Domingo with Port-au-Prince, the capital of Haiti, and traversing some of the most superb scenery to be found in the Western Hemisphere. The views on this trip, which requires only nine hours by automobile, indicate the diversity of climate and topography to be found within the limits of the Dominican Republic. Another high road also connects La Vega, Moca, and Santiago, running through a fertile and picturesque countryside.

## ANCIENT AND MODERN



Courtesy of Sumner Welles

### CULTIVATION OF TOBACCO AND LIVESTOCK RAISING

The eastern part of the Dominican Republic has many miles of fields planted to sugarcane. In the Province of Seybo, the easternmost of the Republic, there are excellent grazing lands, which, notwithstanding the mahogany and mango trees growing here and there, look like the cattle ranges of the western part of the United States. Some of the best livestock in the country is raised in this region. Directly to the north and beyond the Cordillera Central which forms the watershed of the Republic, is a fertile plain, called the Vega Real, or Royal Plain, by Columbus. Here the principal products of the national wealth, cacao and tobacco, are cultivated,

# COLUMBUS AS SEEN BY HIS CONTEMPORARIES<sup>1</sup>

By DOROTHY PLETCHER HOWERTH

READERS interested in Columbus's daring exploits of 1492 revel in the early allusions to his discoveries in books written over 400 years ago by the Genoese Admiral's own friends and contemporaries. Unique with their oddly printed pages, and brown with age, the ancient volumes serve as a link between our age and the days when the Great Navigator sailed the seas. How odd, in this era of submarines and dirigibles and swift ocean liners, to be handling and reading books that have come down to us from a time when tiny sailing vessels were considered the last word in navigation.

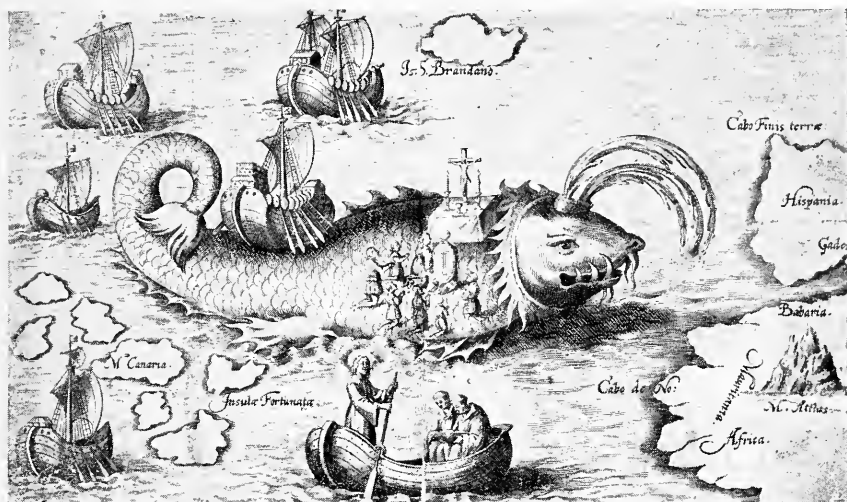
On the shelves of the Rare Book Room in the Library of Congress at Washington are 10 books relating to the discovery of the New World which were included among the 3,000 incunabula purchased by Congress from Dr. Otto H. F. Vollbehr in 1930. Doctor Vollbehr's aim, it has been pointed out by a member of the Library staff, was to get together a collection that would show what the people of the fifteenth century were thinking about. His library is representative to an amazing degree of every sort of publication that came from the fifteenth century presses. Apparently nobody else thought that the fifteenth century books best worth having were those that show the mind of that century.

Particularly intriguing in this group of 10 rare Americana is a picturesque little volume with an old binding of oak boards and half-leather sides, besprinkled generously with worm holes. Broken metal fasteners are attached so that the book may be snapped shut. This is none other than the highly prized Verardus volume, published in Basel on April 21, 1494, and celebrated because it includes the famous "Columbus Letter," an account of the admiral's first voyage to America, together with six woodcut illustrations of the trip, the very first news pictures to depict the discovery of the New World.

The "Columbus Letter" is preceded by a drama in dialogue on the siege and capture of Granada from the Moors by King Ferdinand. Written by Verardus and acted in Rome in 1492, it begins in this wise: "To the praise of the most illustrious Ferdinand, King of the Spains, Bethica and Granada, the siege, victory and triumph. And of the islands newly discovered in the Indian Sea."

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<sup>1</sup> First published in the magazine section of *The Sunday Star*, Washington, D. C., November 15, 1931, and here reprinted by courtesy of the author, Dorothy Pletcher Howerth, and *The Sunday Star*.



STRANGE SIGHT SEEN BY COLUMBUS

Among the many strange things reported to have been seen by Columbus on his voyages across the Atlantic was a "fish big enough for mass to be said on its back." This picture, from an old print, also shows the mythical Fortunate Isles and St. Brandan's Isle.

The title-page clearly explains why these two works were published together, for by them is commemorated the important year 1492, when there occurred two events exceedingly vital to Spain—the discovery of America and the destruction of the Moorish power.

Although eminent historians claim that following the discovery of America, Columbus's amount of fame was not what it should have been, yet the letters he wrote when nearing the Azores on the return from his first voyage, immediately whet the public interest and were in great demand.

The story goes that on his first return trip from America, when in the Canary Islands, February 15, 1493, Columbus penned in Spanish his first official account of the discovery and addressed it to Luis de Santángel, Secretary and Steward of the Royal Household, but intended it, of course, for the eyes of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain. This letter was printed in a small quarto of four leaves in Spain shortly after Columbus's arrival in that country.

Columbus dispatched a similar letter, also in Spanish, this time to one Gabriel Sánchez, the Crown treasurer. Although the original of this has never been found, it has come down to us through a translation in Latin, made by Leander de Cosco in Naples on April 29, 1493, and not less than six editions of this Latin version were printed in that same year. This version is the one included in the Verardus volume. It is thought that two Genoese ambassadors, who left Barcelona

shortly after Columbus's return, may have taken to Italy with them a Spanish edition of the letter.

"The letters to Sánchez and Santángel," says Henry Harrisse, distinguished authority on Columbus, "together with the abstract of Columbus's Journal in the hand of Las Casas, preserved in the archives of the Duke del Infantado, and published for the first time by Navarrete, and the extract from Bernáldez, . . . compose the sum total of all that we know concerning the first voyage of Columbus."

At any rate, we have the Sánchez letter in our Verardus book—incidentally, the first edition of Verardus with the discovery letter—safely reposing on the shelves of our Rare Book Room. In fact, we have two, because the Library of Congress already had a Verardus in its famous Peter Force Collection.

"Having now accomplished the undertaking upon which I set out," says the Columbus Discovery Letter in the Verardus book, "I know that it will be agreeable to you to be informed of all I have discovered in my voyage. On the thirty-third day after I left Cadiz I reached the Indian Ocean, where I found many islands peopled by innumerable inhabitants; of all which I took possession without resistance. The islands abound in the finest variety of trees, so lofty that they seem to reach the stars. These people are of a very timid disposition, an uncommonly simple, honest people, liberal in bestowing what they possess."

The woodcuts in Verardus of the landing of Columbus, being the very first illustrations to depict the discovery of the New World, are, of course, of extraordinary interest. Indeed, it is frequently stated that they were drawn by Columbus himself, but who can say?

The title-page displays a woodcut of a full-length portrait of King Ferdinand of Spain, dressed in armor, holding the escutcheon of Castile and Leon in his right hand and that of Granada in his left, and the words "Fernandus Rex Hispanie."

The next woodcut depicts Columbus and another mariner in a boat landing on the shores of America and offering a goblet to the half-frightened, unclothed natives, some of whom are advancing, while others are running away. A caravel or small sailing vessel is in the foreground. At the top of the picture are the words "Insula Hyspana" (Santo Domingo).

Then there is a woodcut of a map of the islands discovered by Columbus on his first voyage, depicting Hispaniola, Fernandina, Ysabella, San Salvador, and Santa María de la Concepción.

A town and fort in the process of construction by the seaside, with the words "Insula Hyspana" (Santo Domingo), form the theme for another picture; the next is a single escutcheon of Castile and Leon, and, finally, there is an exquisite full-page woodcut of Columbus's

flagship, in full sail, showing the Great Navigator's cabin on the stern, with these words above: "Oceanica Classis."

Scarce, indeed, are contemporary references in a printed book to new discoveries during the progress of Columbus's second voyage, or in the interval previous to the undertaking of the third voyage, in the spring of 1498, but we find some in Sebastian Brandt's *Ship of Fools*, Zacharius Lilius's *De Origine et Laudibus Scientiarum*, Antonius Nebrissensis's *Cosmographiae Libri*, and Fedea Inghirami's funeral oration on Prince John, son of Ferdinand and Isabella, in which he mentioned the New World. All of these except the last mentioned are among the Vollbehr Americana.

Strange as it seems, there was surprisingly little written about the brave Genoese admiral's exploits in his era, and many famous historians in the early part of the sixteenth century utterly ignored Columbus in their chronicles. The above-mentioned Sebastian Brandt's *Ship of Fools*, published at Augsburg in 1497—an amusing satire on the follies of society—contains one of the earliest printed references to the discovery of the New World.

This beautiful little edition of 147 leaves is illustrated with 116 of the quaintest woodcuts imaginable; on the title page is a woodcut portraying four boats loaded with "fools." The picture accompanying the reference to the New World is of two "fools" or jesters, one of whom is holding a compass, while the other leans on a window sill gazing out at him.

The Library of Congress also owns an English version of the *Ship of Fools*, almost as unique as the older one in Latin, in which both Latin and English text are included. At the top of the title-page is the title in Latin, while at the bottom one reads: "The Ship of Fooles, wherein is shewed the folly of all States, with divers other workes adjoined unto the same, very profitable and fruitful for all men."

Its New World reference trips along in this manner:

For now of late hath large lande and grounde  
 Bene founde by maryners and crafty governours,  
 The which landes were never knowen nor founde  
 Before our time by our predecessours,  
 And hereafter shall by our successours  
 Perchaunce more be founde, wherein men dwell,  
 Of whom we never before this same heard tell.  
 Ferdinandus that late was King of Spayne,  
 Of lande and people hath founde plentie and store,  
 Of whom the biding to us was uncertayne,  
 No Christian mane of them heard tell before:  
 Thus it is folly to tende unto the lore,  
 And unsure science of vain geometry,  
 Since none can knowe all the world perfectly.

Zacharius Lilius also referred to the new discoveries during Columbus's second voyage, in his work published in Florence in 1496,

the title of which seems to be "The origin and honor of the sciences. There are no Antipodes. The misery of man and contempt for the world. The origin of winds. The life of Charlemagne." On page 40 Lilius makes one of the earliest printed allusions to the discovery of America, as follows: "The case seems to demand that I explain shortly in what time the ocean may be crossed, lest any one think it extraordinary that, the King of Spain, as is reported, is sending navies to explore new shores."



Courtesy of the Sunday Star Magazine

#### ISLANDS DISCOVERED BY COLUMBUS

A woodcut of a map of Hispaniola, Fernandina, Ysabella, San Salvador, and Santa Maria de la Concepcion, discovered on the first voyage of Columbus. This illustration is from the *Columbus Letter*, published in Basel in 1494, in connection with a drama by Verardus on the capture of Granada.

The third in this trio who early mention Columbus's deeds, Antonius Nebrissensis, does so in his description of the world, *Cosmographiae Libri*, published in 1498. Vastly interesting to Columbus scholars is the fact that a copy of this work in the Columbine Library at Seville contains notes in the handwriting of Columbus. Says Nebrissensis of the New World: "Such is the daring spirit of the men of our times, that they will soon bring us a fine description of that land, both of the islands, and of the continent, of a great part of the sea-earth whereof the sailors have given us an account; that part chiefly which lies opposite to the newly discovered islands, Hispania, Isabella, and the others adjacent to them."

Baptista Mantuanus's three works included in the Vollbehr Americana are tremendously

valuable. The three of them were published in 1499, but in different places—one in Venice, another at Basel and the third in Florence. Two of them even have the same title, *The Three Golden Books of Patience*, but their subject matter is different.

The one hailing from Venice has this to say about Columbus's discoveries: " \* \* \* and especially because in our days through the activity of the Kings of Spain \* \* \* have been found islands inhabited by man, and also much larger than ours, to the point of having a circumference of 3,000 miles and more. Of these neither Strabo, nor Ptolemy, Pomponius Mela, Pliny nor any of the ancient



writers makes any mention, from which it is evident that they were unknown till the present."

And the Basel volume records the discovery story this way: " \* \* \* in our own days through the munificence of the King of Spain, many islands have been discovered, in the Atlantic, Ethiopic and Indian Oceans, even beyond the tropic of Capricorn and the Torrid Zone, where the other inhabitable part of the earth is established. \* \* \* These islands are not mentioned by Strabo, Ptolemaeus, Pomponius Mela, or Pliny; in fact, no writer of classical antiquity refers to them."

Mantuanus's third volume, *Omnia Opera*, of goodly size with its 396 leaves, chants of "the land of the free and the home of the brave" in verse:

So, hitherto unknown to Northern lands,  
There lay a continent beyond the seas,  
Remote and cloistered by lapping shores.  
But now Iberic courage cleaves the waves  
Seizes the Pole and swings from east to west,  
From west to east, as now, a sailor guiding,  
The winds sweep in our Indian argosies.

Pope Pius II, or Aeneas Sylvius, as he was called, was a writer whose books appealed to a wide audience. In fact, his *History of Persons, Places, and Things*, published in Venice in 1477—this is among the Vollbehr Americana—influenced Columbus considerably. The Columbine Library at Seville has a copy, the margins of which are crammed with scientific and geographical annotations in Columbus's handwriting; on one of the fly leaves is a transcription made by him of the famous letter Toscanelli wrote to Canon Fernández Martins. It is thought that the admiral took it with him on his fourth voyage, because he quoted from it in his letter dated July 7, 1503.

Columbus also read the *Hexameron*, written by St. Ambrosius, and published in Augsburg in 1472. From this he quoted extensively in describing his third voyage. This, too, is in the Vollbehr collection.

The tenth item on our list of Vollbehr Americana is nothing less than a first edition of that widely celebrated work, Hartmann Schedel's *Nuremberg Chronicle*—a compilation of universal history—published at Nuremberg in 1493, three or four months after Columbus had returned and announced the discovery of the New World. This delightful pictorial description of the world, compiled by a Nuremberg physician, is illustrated with over 2,200 woodcuts made by Pleydenwurff and Wolgemut, who was the master of that great genius, Albrecht Dürer.

"If Koberger had printed only this Chronicle," says Dibdin, "he would have done enough to place his name among the most distinguished of his typographical brethren."



THE FIRST MASS SAID IN AMERICA

An illustration from the volume "Nova Navigatio Novi Orbis," by Honorius Philoponus, published in Munich in 1621.

But our hero, Christopher Columbus, gets a set-back in this volume, for here, on page 290b, the discovery of America is claimed for Martin Behaim of Nuremberg and Diogo Cam, a Portuguese, explorers in the service of John II, of Portugal. In 1483, it says, "these two, by the grace of God, crossed the Equinoctial line and sailed to another world where, facing the East at noon, their shadows fell on their right hands, and where they discovered new lands."

However, this passage is not in the German edition of the same year; and it has been shown that it is a spurious interpolation, as it is written in a different hand in the Latin text of the manuscript of the Chronicle, still preserved in Nuremberg. And that seems to put Herr Behaim out of the picture. In all fairness to this gentleman, however, it is thought that he was not the one who made the claim, for a globe which he himself made in 1492 shows no sign of the alleged voyage.

Naturally the Behaim claim, although proven false, has had some advocates, who have written querulously inconsistent books trying to rob Columbus of his just glory. But human nature being what it is, we should have had such writers just the same, even had there been no *Nuremberg Chronicle*.

In addition to its priceless Vollbehr Americana, the Library of Congress possesses many other exceedingly rare works by writers of Columbus's time or a little later. There are volumes by Bartolomé de las Casas, famous for his transcript of Columbus's Journal of his first voyage, editions of Peter Martyr, Oviedo, Gryaeus, Herrera, Benzoni, Enciso, Philoponus, Giustiniani, Waldseemüller, Jovius, De Bry, Vespucius, and many more.

One may visit the Rare Book Room, which is under the very efficient supervision of Mr. V. Valta Parma, the curator, and there, if he is looking for first-hand information on his history, browse through Herrera's famous *Decades*, filled with entertaining 3-inch-square woodcuts of early American explorations. And the critics say that Herrera stands first among the earlier writers.

There are works by that colorful writer, Fernández de Oviedo, a native of Madrid, whose years of sojourn in America in numerous high positions fitted him for describing events here so vividly. In fact, he knew Christopher Columbus personally. His work is a source from which most writers have drawn their accounts of the early happenings in America. Indeed, he became famous as the author of the greatest contemporary history of the New World, and well he might have known the trend of affairs here, for he spent 34 of the 79 years of his life in America, crossing the Atlantic eight times. His *Historia de las Indias* (1535-1557), the greatest Spanish history of the Indies, containing woodcuts of American interest, is in the Library here.

And then there is Fernández de Enciso's *Summa de Geographia* (1519), in which his description of America is chiefly from his own observation. It was he who owned the vessel and big-heartedly planned the expedition that made Balboa famous. A great hydrographer and explorer, his work is considered of high value for the early geographical history of America.

Ah, but here is the volume that draws everybody's gaze like a magnet—Honorius Philoponus's *Nova Navigatio Novi Orbis* (1621). Strange that this most curious and interesting pictorial volume of Americana which tells the story of Father Buell's attempt to Christianize the new land, is not better known.

In order to bring Christianity to the Indians, the King of Spain sent Father Buell and 12 monks over here with Columbus on his second voyage in 1493. He had many disagreements with Columbus and upon returning to Spain spoke most maliciously about him.

The book contains two portraits—one of Columbus, the other of Father Buell—and 17 full-page plates picturing Columbus and the monks holding the very first mass in the New World, Indians attacking Columbus's expedition which is attempting to land, Indian tortures and battle scenes.

And who would pass by Vespucius's *Paesi Novamente Retrovati* of 1507—the earliest known collection of voyages which has been printed? It consists of six "books" which discuss Vespucius's exploits; also those of Columbus in Book 4, "How the King of Spain Fitted Out Two Ships for Columbus," and Book 5, "The New World." Even today this book is considered an excellent source of information.

A tiny booklet containing the oration by the Spanish statesman, Carvajal, always commands attention. This is of immense value because in this document, on July 19, 1493, before Pope Alexander VI,

Carvajal made what is considered the second printed report on the discovery of America.

Martin Waldseemüller's *Cosmographie Introductio* (1507) has an account of Americus Vespucius's four voyages, to be sure, but it enters the hall of Americana fame because it holds the first printed suggestion that the New World be called "America."

For the first 10 years after the death of Columbus, contemporary references to the Great Navigator were exceedingly scarce. But in 1516 we find the earliest biography of Columbus. And where? Strange, indeed, but in a polyglot Psalter—written in Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, and Chaldean, by one Giustiniani, Bishop of Nebbio, and published at Genoa. In annotating the text, the editor, in a marginal note to the fourth verse of the Nineteenth Psalm, inserted a sketch of Columbus's life, because the hero of 1492 had claimed that he was selected to fulfill its prophecy. This narrative includes several interesting points not found in any other writings.

The second biography of Columbus, together with the oldest likeness of the great explorer that is in existence, appeared in the *Elogia Virorum Illustrium* of 1575, by Paulus Jovius. This attracts the portrait seekers.

When Columbus's son, Ferdinand, read Giustiniani's Psalter account, he became exceedingly angry because of the statement that his father was born of low parentage, and unjustly accused the writer of telling 13 lies about his famous parent. But in spite of Ferdinand's frantic attempts to connect his father's descent with the Colombos of an ancient line, the world continues to say that Christopher Columbus was the son of a wool weaver. Finally, Ferdinand himself, tremendously upset by the Psalter account, wrote a biography of his father over the authenticity of which the critics have been fighting for a number of centuries.

Nevertheless the naïve Psalter account continues to hold the public interest, and here it is:

Then it was Christopher, named Columbus, a Genoese by birth, of low family, who in our times, by his energy, explored in a few months a greater extent of land and of sea than almost all the rest of mankind ever did in all past ages. And it is a wonderful thing, now verified, and visited not by a few ships only, but by whole fleets and armies going to and fro. He, who had scarcely received the first elements of education in his childhood, applied himself to the study of navigation after he grew up. His brother had been to Portugal, and while in Lisbon followed the business of delineating representations of the sea, of ports, and of shores, for the use of mariners.

From him he acquired his knowledge of gulfs and islands through such pictures. It may be supposed that he [Columbus's brother] obtained his information from some of those who went yearly, by order of the king, to explore unknown parts of Africa, and the distant shores of the ocean between the South and West. Having conversed often with such men, and comparing the information received from them with the ideas suggested by the pictures and what he had read in works on cosmography, he came at last to the opinion that it was possible for

one who, starting from the African shore where it turns southward, should sail in a southwesterly direction, to find, in a few months, either an island or the extremity of the continent of India.

As soon as he understood these things sufficiently from his brother and considered them seriously within himself, he informed some of the noblemen of the Spanish king that he thought, if he could obtain from the king the means of executing his design, he should be able to discover new lands, find new nations, and penetrate to regions hitherto unknown, and much more promptly than the Portuguese.

The king soon heard of it, and partly to emulate the Portuguese monarchs, partly for the sake of such discoveries and of the glory which might result from them for himself and his posterity, after having long conversed on the subject with Columbus, ordered two ships to be fitted out. Starting with these and sailing towards the Fortunate Isles, Columbus set his course a little to the south of west,

#### CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

The oldest likeness of the explorer in existence, which appeared in "Elogia Virorum Illustrium" by Paulus Jovius, a book of biographies of famous men published in 1573.



first about southwest, then, when further out, almost due west. After they had been many days out, and it was known by the reckoning that they had already gone over a distance of 4,000 miles, his men, having lost all hope, urged him to retrace his steps and set sail in a contrary direction.

But Columbus, persevering in his design, promised them, according to his own conjectures, that after one more day of navigation they would find either a continent or some islands. They trusted him. And, indeed, the next day, having discovered I do not know what lands, the sailors bestowed the most enthusiastic praises on him, and reposed the utmost confidence in his opinion.

These were islands, as they ascertained afterward, almost innumerable, and not far distant from a certain main land, as appearances indicated. It was observed that some of these islands were inhabited by wild men called cannibals, who are fond of eating human flesh, and disturb the neighboring nations with their robberies; they build canoes out of large logs, for the purpose of crossing over to the nearest islands, and hunt for men to devour, as wolves would do. And

Columbus had the good fortune of capturing one of those canoes with its men. That was not accomplished without a bloody contest. Those men were afterward brought safely to Spain.

The island first discovered was called "Hispana". They saw in it men innumerable, and conspicuous for their poverty and nakedness. These were invited in a friendly manner by signs to approach, and attracted with presents. When the natives came nearer, it was clearly seen that they were struck with wonder and admiration by the white faces of our men, so unlike their own, by their appearance, their extraordinary arrival, and by everything about them, as if they had come from Heaven. Their complexion is quite different from ours, although it is not black, but very much like the color of gold. \* \* \*

Having accomplished his purpose, Columbus resolved to return to Spain. Fortifying the place of which he had first taken possession, he left only 40 men to keep it and sailed homeward. He was favored with a good voyage, and as soon as he reached the Fortunate Isles, sent messengers with letters to the king, who, when apprised of all those things, rejoiced wonderfully, appointed Columbus superintendent [Admiral] of all maritime affairs, and conferred upon him great honors. All the nobility went to meet the discoverer of a new world, and he was received with great rejoicing.

Other ships were instantly equipped, far exceeding the former in number and size, and freighted with things of all kinds. \* \* \* Then Columbus, sailing with a fleet of 12 ships well provided with arms, men, and an abundance of all things, after a voyage of not more than 20 days, reached the Island of Hispana. \* \* \*

Then, having sent explorers in all directions, and ascertained that the island was remarkable for its extent, climate, the fertility of its soil, and density of its population, and being informed that in some places the purest gold was found in torrents, while there was in the fields a certain seed very similar to pepper in shape and flavor, he determined to build a town. Materials having consequently been collected from all sides and skilled workmen employed, a town was soon built, to which he gave the name of "Isabella."

He then started with two ships, and circumnavigated the whole island. Then, coasting along the shore of the continent, to which he had given the name of "Juan," he sailed for 71 days along that shore, keeping his prow constantly to the West; and being a most skillful judge of the swiftness of vessels, knew, through the reckoning of days and nights, that he had gone over a distance of about 6,000 miles. He called "Evangelista" the promontory where he stopped, and then determined to sail homeward, but with the intention of returning better prepared and provided. During the voyage, a drawing was made of the gulfs, shores and headlands. \* \* \*

If the shore had not presented an obstacle to the navigators, the whole of one hemisphere having been surveyed, the extreme East might have been soon reached by those who were sailing westward. After accomplishing those wonderful voyages, and returning to Spain, Columbus terminated his career.

The King himself, who had granted him many privileges during his life, also permitted him that after his death his son should succeed him as Superintendent [Admiral] of the Indies and Ocean. That son is still living, and is a man of great importance and immensely rich. The highest nobility of Spain have not disdained to give him in marriage a young girl, as much distinguished for her rank as for her character.

When Columbus died he did not forget his dear country, and left to the hospital of St. George, which the Genoese esteem the principal ornament and crown of the whole Republic, the tenth part of his revenues, and of all things he possessed. Such was the end of that most celebrated man, who, had he lived in the times of the Greek heroes, would certainly have been placed among the gods.

# COLUMBUS DISCOVERS HISPANIOLA

FROM THE JOURNAL OF COLUMBUS<sup>1</sup>

WEDNESDAY, Dec. 5th. All last night they lay to off *Cabo Lindo* in order to examine the land which extended to the east and at sunrise discovered another cape in that direction, two leagues and a half distant, which having passed, they found the coast began to tend toward the south and southwest and presently discovered a lofty and handsome cape in that direction, about seven leagues from the last. The Admiral was inclined to steer that way, but his desire to visit the island of *Babeque*, which according to the indians (*sic*) was to the northeast, restrained him. The wind, however, blowing from the Northeast, hindered him from steering that way; proceeding onward, therefore, he descried land<sup>2</sup> in the southeast which appeared to be quite a large island, and according to the information of the indians was very populous, and called *Bohio*. The inhabitants of *Cuba* or *Juana*, and those of the other islands entertained a great dread of these people, imagining them to be man-eaters. Other surprising relations the indians communicated by signs to the Spaniards, of which the Admiral does not avow his belief, but thinks the indians of *Bohio* to be a more ingenious and artful race than the others, as they were accustomed to make prisoners of them. The wind being northeast and inclining toward the north he determined to leave *Cuba* or *Juana*, which hitherto he had taken for a continent by its size, having sailed along the coast a hundred and twenty leagues. He therefore left the shore and steered southeast by east, as the land last discovered appeared in that direction. He took this course because the wind always came around from the north to the northeast, and from thence to east and southeast. It blew hard and they carried all sail, having a smooth sea, and a current favoring them, so that from morning to one o'clock in the afternoon they sailed eight miles an hour, for nearly six hours; the nights are stated to be here nearly fifteen hours long. After this, they went ten miles an hour, and by sunset had made a progress of eighty-eight miles, which are twenty-two leagues, all to the southeast. As night was coming

<sup>1</sup> Excerpt from the *Personal Narrative of the First Voyage of Columbus to America*. From a manuscript recently discovered in Spain. Translated from the Spanish. [By Samuel Kettell.] Boston: Published by Thomas B. Wait and Son, 1827.

The manuscript is in the handwriting of Fray Bartolomé de las Casas, and is evidently an abridgment of Columbus's original holographic *Journal*, which Las Casas had in his possession among many others of Columbus's papers. This abridged journal, consisting of seventy-six closely written folios, was published by Martín Fernández de Navarrete in 1825. These excerpts are from the first English translation, considered by later translators to contain some imperfections.—EDITOR.

<sup>2</sup> This is the first sight of *La Española*, or Hispaniola, the island now divided into the Dominican Republic and Haiti, which was so important in the later history of the New World.—EDITOR.



COLUMBUS'S FAREWELL TO FERDINAND AND ISABELLA

From an old print.

on the caravel *Nina*, being a swift sailor, was dispatched ahead to look out for a harbor; she came to the mouth of one which resembled the bay of Cadiz, and it being dark, they sent the boat to sound it; the boat carried a light, and before the Admiral could come up with the *Nina*, who was beating up and down, waiting for the boat to make her a signal to enter, the light disappeared. Upon this she stood off to sea, making a light for the Admiral, and coming up they related what had happened. Presently the light on board the boat again appeared, when the *Nina* stood in for the land; the Admiral was not able to follow, but remained beating about all night.

Thursday, Dec. 6th. At day break he found himself four leagues from the harbour, which he named *Puerto Maria*,<sup>3</sup> and saw a fine cape which bore south by west; to this he gave the name of *Cabo del Estrella*,<sup>4</sup> it was twenty eight miles distant, and appeared to be the southern extremity of the island. There appeared land in the east like an island of a moderate size, about forty miles distant. Another handsome and finely shaped headland was seen bearing east by south, at a distance of fifty-four miles, this he called *Cabo del Elefante*. Another bore

<sup>3</sup> This is Mole Saint Nicholas.—EDITOR.

<sup>4</sup> This is Cape Saint Nicholas. It has sometimes been called the Gibraltar of the New World, but though many defences have been built there, they have never withstood attack.—EDITOR.

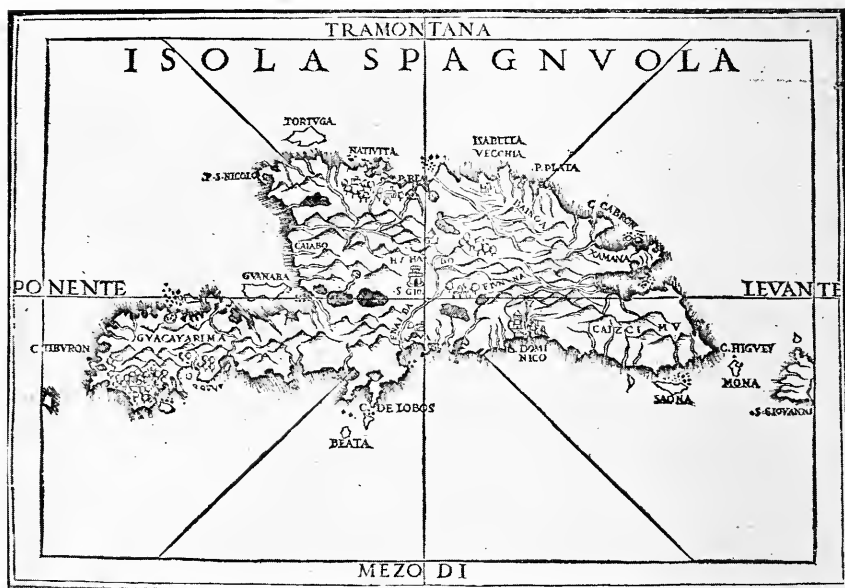


east southeast, twenty-eight miles off, which he named *Cabo de Cinquin*. A large opening or bay which seemed to be a river was observed about twenty miles distant in the direction of southeast by east. There appeared to be between the two last mentioned capes a very wide channel which the sailors said separated an island from the main land; this island he named *Tortuga*.<sup>5</sup> The land here appeared lofty, and not mountainous but even and level like the finest arable tracts. The whole or great part of it seemed under cultivation, and the plantations resembled the wheat fields in the plain of Cordova in the month of May. Many fires were seen during the night, and by day, a great number of smokes, which to appearance were signals giving notice of some people with whom they were at war. The whole coast runs to the east. In the evening the Admiral entered the above mentioned harbor, which he named *Puerto de San Nicolas*, it being the day of that saint: he was astonished on entering, to observe the goodness and beauty of the harbour, and although he had highly praised the ports of Cuba, he declares that this is not inferior to any of them, but rather exceeds, and differs from them all. The entrance has a width of a league and a half, where a vessel should steer SSE. there being sufficient room to steer in any direction.

It extends in this manner to the SSE. two leagues: Here is a fine beach with a river, and trees of a thousand sorts all loaded with fruit, which the Admiral took for spices and nutmegs, but being unripe he could not get any knowledge of them. The water in this harbour is of a surprising depth, they not being able to reach bottom at a short distance from the shore with a line of forty fathoms; in other parts they found fifteen fathoms, and a clear bottom; not a shoal is to be seen throughout the harbour, and the shore is so bold that an oar's length from it the water is five fathoms deep. Here is room sufficient for a thousand carracks to sail about in. At the SSE. the harbour offers a recess opening towards the NE., of about half a league in depth, and preserving the same breadth throughout its whole extent. This is shut in after such a manner, that within it the main entrance of the harbour cannot be seen. The depth of the water is everywhere eleven fathoms, with a fine clean sand at the bottom; the shore is bold, having eight fathoms water within a few feet distance. Here is a fine dry air, and the shore around free from wood. The land appeared the most rocky of any they had seen; the trees small, and many similar to those of Spain, as evergreen oaks, and strawberry trees; the same they remarked of the herbs. Since they had been in this part of the world, they had not experienced so cool a temperature of the air as they found at this place. A beautiful plain lay opposite the entrance of the harbour, through the midst of which flowed the

<sup>5</sup> Columbus himself gave Tortugas its name, which is the Spanish word for turtles. It is over twenty miles long by about five miles wide and is famous for having been the home of the buccaneers in the seventeenth century.—EDITOR.

river mentioned above. The neighbourhood, the Admiral thought to be extremely populous, from the number and size of the canoes which were seen; some of them were as large as a *fusta* of fifteen oars. The indians all took to flight on perceiving the ships. Those whom the Spaniards had on board grew so earnest to return to their homes that the Admiral says he had some intention of carrying them thither at his departure from this place, and that they were mistrustful of him, for not taking his route that way. For this reason he declares that he put no trust in any of their representations, nor they in his. They appeared to have the greatest fear imaginable of the people of this island. The Admiral found that if he wished to obtain any communication with those on shore, it would be necessary to wait here some



THE FIRST MAP OF SANTO DOMINGO

The Island of Hispaniola, or "La Española," as charted by Peter Martyr in 1534.

days, which he was unwilling to do, as he could not depend upon the weather, and wished to make further discoveries. He hoped in our Lord that he should be able through the medium of the indians on board, to have some conversation with them upon his return; and may it please the Almighty, says he that I may find some good traffic in gold before that time.

Friday, Dec. 7th. At daybreak, they set sail and left the port of San Nicolas with a southwesterly wind, and stood on their course two leagues to the NE. towards a cape which forms the *carenero*, when a bay was seen to the SE. and *Cabo de la Estrella* to the SW. twenty-four miles distant. From thence they proceeded to the east, along the coast, about forty-eight miles to *Cabo Cinquin*, twenty

miles of which course they had gone E. by N. They found the land high and the water deep, close to the shore twenty and thirty fathoms, and a lombarda shot distant, no bottom; all which was proved by actual experiment of the Admiral through the day. He remarks that if the space between the bay above mentioned and the harbour of San Nicolas were cut through, it would form an island of three or four miles in circuit. The land, as before, very high and a (*sic*) trees not large but like evergreen oaks and strawberry trees, the country closely resembling Castile. Two leagues before arriving at *Cabo Cinquin*, they discovered an opening like a gap in the mountain within which was seen a very large valley, covered apparently with barley, a sign that this valley abounded with settlements; at the back of it were lofty and extensive mountains. Arrived at *Cabo de Cinquin* they found *Cabo de Tortuga* to bear NE., thirty-two miles distant. About a lombarda-shot from the *Cabo de Cinquin*, there is a rock rising above the water, very easily noticed. At this place *Cabo del Elefante* bore E. by S., seventy miles distant, the land all very lofty. Six leagues further onward was a bay, within which they discovered extensive valleys, and fields, with very high mountains, the whole country appearing like Castile. At eight miles distance they found a river, which was narrow although deep, and might easily admit a carrack, the mouth without banks or shallows. Sixteen miles further along they came to a harbour, both broad, and of such a depth that no bottom was obtained at the entrance, and the water was fifteen fathoms deep a few feet from the shore; it extended about a mile into the land. As the sky was very cloudy and threatened rain, an unfavourable state upon a coast, especially a strange one, the Admiral determined to put in here, although it was no later in the day than one o'clock, and a strong wind blew astern. This harbour he named *Puerto de la Concepcion*, and entering, landed near a small stream which flowed through fields and plains of wonderful beauty. They carried nets with them for fishing, and while rowing to the land, a skate similar to those of Spain, leaped into the boat; this was the first instance of their meeting with a fish which resembled those of their own country. Many of these were taken by the sailors, as well as soles, and other fish like the Spanish. Going some distance round the country they observed the soil all under cultivation, and heard the songs of the nightingale and many other Spanish birds. They met five indians who immediately fled. A myrtle-tree was seen, and other trees and plants like those of Castile, which, in fact, the whole country resembles.

Saturday, Dec. 8th. It rained very hard, with a strong north wind. The harbour was found secure from all winds except the north, which causes a great surf, driving the vessels from their moorings. At midnight the wind shifted to the NE., and afterward to

the E., from which quarters the harbour is well sheltered by the island of Tortuga, which lies off against it, thirty-six miles distant.<sup>6</sup>

Sunday, Dec. 9th. This day it continued to rain and the weather seemed wintry like October in Castile. No settlement except a single house was seen at the Port of San Nicolas; this was a handsome one, and better constructed than those they had observed in other parts. This is a very large island, says the Admiral, and will undoubtedly measure two hundred leagues in circuit; the land is all cultivated to a high degree, and the towns are probably at a distance back in the country, the inhabitants fleeing at the approach of the strangers, carrying their property with them, and making signals by smoke about the country, as in a state of war. The harbour here is about a thousand paces or quarter of a league wide at the mouth without either bank or shoal, but exceedingly deep at the edge of the shore; it extends within about three thousands paces, with a fine clear bottom; any ship may enter it and anchor without the least hazard. Here are two small streams, and opposite the mouth of the harbour, several plains the most beautiful in the world, and resembling those of Castile, except that they surpass them. On this account the Admiral named the island, *Espanola*.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>6</sup> So in the text, but the true distance is only 11 miles.—EDITOR.

<sup>7</sup> Sic.—EDITOR



THE FLEET OF COLUMBUS AT LISBON, PORTUGAL

On his return from his first voyage.



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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

JUNE

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA  
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HIS EXCELLENCY JUAN ESTEBAN MONTERO RODRÍGUEZ,  
PRESIDENT OF CHILE

December 4, 1931–December 4, 1937.





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## JUAN ESTEBAN MONTERO RODRÍGUEZ, PRESIDENT OF CHILE

THE President of Chile, elected October 4, 1931, by a large majority of the popular vote, and inducted into office on December 4, 1931, is a man 52 years of age, whose reputation for probity, political modesty, and scholarliness was greatly increased by his brilliant record in the last ministry of Ex-President Ibáñez. Holding as his first public office the portfolio of Minister of the Interior, he became a popular hero and was acclaimed as the man best fitted to assume the presidency.

Don Juan Esteban Montero Rodríguez belongs to the modern intellectual middle class of Chile. It is probable that he never dreamed of reaching the highest office in his country's gift, although his ancestor Manuel Rodríguez, a famous fighter in the War of Independence, doubtless transmitted to him some of the qualities which shaped his destiny to this end. The son of a farmer, Señor Montero was educated first in the secondary school of his Province, located in the city of Curico, and then in the Jesuit School in Santiago. Later he studied law and was admitted to the bar in 1901. The ability which he displayed during his school and university days forecast the sound judgment, depth of legal learning, and invulnerable uprightness which now characterize him.

From 1906 to 1912 Señor Montero was legal adviser to the Council of National Defense, and from 1912 to 1925 professor of trial law on the faculty of the University in Santiago. In the latter year he felt obliged to refuse appointment to the chair of civil law because of the

changes introduced into the organization of the University; he thus made common cause with the students.

Although Señor Montero was first advanced by professional men as their candidate, no one doubts that as President he will be the servant of the entire nation. The fact that he resigned from the vice presidency of the Republic prior to the election in order that his opponents might feel that he was exerting no influence upon results through his official position is one reason for the belief that as chief magistrate of Chile Señor Montero will be impartial and unselfishly patriotic, jealously guarding the honor of the high office entrusted to him.



# INTRODUCTION TO MONTALVO<sup>1</sup>

By His Excellency Señor Don GONZALO ZALDUMBIDE

*Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Ecuador in the United States;  
Corresponding Member of the Academia Española de la Lengua*

THE writer who, after the admirable prologue called *El Buscapié*, in which Montalvo explains the idea of his "Chapters which Cervantes forgot," still believes it should be expounded here more in detail, might be set down "as a bold man or a simpleton."

Everything essential has been said at length by Montalvo himself, with that proud modesty with which he so magnificently admits his shortcomings, apologizes, shows his enthusiasm and finally gives his reasons for deciding to undertake the preparation of his work.

Neither the book nor its purpose needed any defense. But that most singular *Buscapié* is the most amazing and superabundant assortment of reasons and keen witticisms ever brought together to justify a book fully justified in itself.

Montalvo could not have been unaware of his high calling to this undertaking. To anyone at all acquainted with the nature of his genius, it was the natural consequence of spiritual affinities that Montalvo should have attempted—not only as an exhibition of his learning and cleverness, but also as an expression of his idealism, sensibility, and honor, of his instinctive justice, and of his moral code—an imitation of the model dearest to his predilections as author and as man.

Everything attracted him to it. "An essay or study of the Castilian language," he himself says. It is not, of course, a systematic reconstruction of the speech of Cervantes nor even a careful and erudite use of words and expressions peculiar to that time. Where another would have written a retrospective work as a grammarian or an archaic purist, Montalvo moves with the assurance and the freedom of one who finds himself in his element, speaking his mother tongue. The prose of Montalvo, in itself Cervantic, demanded, to complete the illusion of his Golden Age, a contemporary subject, suitable material. Therefore he seems to be breathing his native air in the midst of objects, ideas, and sentiments familiar to his condition, in the thick of mighty deeds, trophies, and combats suitable

<sup>1</sup> Under the title of *Dos Palabras* this introduction is published in "Capítulos que se le olvidaron a Cervantes. Ensayo de imitación de un libro inimitable." Obra póstuma de Juan Montalvo. Paris, Casa Editorial Garnier Hermanos, 1921.

The centenary of Montalvo's birth was celebrated on April 13 of this year. Readers who are interested in a further discussion of his life and work are referred to the brilliant essay, "Montalvo en el Centenario de su Nacimiento," by Señor Zaldumbide, published in the *BOLETÍN DE LA UNIÓN PANAMERICANA*, Junio de 1932.

See the tribute of the Governing Board to the memory of Montalvo, pp. 434 to 436.—EDITOR.

to the prestige of his rank. How well this language fits seignorial pomp, the noble manner, the courtly gesture and knightly surrender, and how appropriate it is to all the science of chivalry, the codes, traditions, heraldry, and ceremony of the knights errant! With what evident delight and skillful mastery he showers forth the treasure of his smiling and antiquated erudition! But this language in which the most noble models are reflected and mingled is not that of Cervantes alone. It is the language, the style of Montalvo, well adapted



JUAN MONTALVO

Eminent Ecuadorean author, the centenary of whose birth was celebrated April 13, 1932.

to Cervantic subjects. It is the style and the language of the *Siete Tratados* and *El Espectador*. Therefore if Montalvo used this manner of speech in other works before and after this, it was not as a mere experiment that he began his imitation of the inimitable book.

"It is the firm belief of the author that he has written a course in ethics," Montalvo himself said. Expounding moral questions in eloquent language and describing examples of conduct, especially of the chivalrous behavior which mirrored his own code, he clearly displays here not only literary elegance but also his most cherished criterion. "The writer whose purpose is not the improvement of his

fellow men would do them a favor by throwing his pen into the fire: universal moral benefit should be his aim—not that preached by the pseudo-wise.” From the mouth of Don Quixote fall in lofty and resounding phrases those reflections which give value to the book and satisfy Montalvo’s character. Elevated by the chivalric ideal, the noble commonplaces of a traditional code of morals acquire a new flavor and a new meaning on the lips and in the deeds of Don Quixote, who gives them reality and grandeur through his heroic candor, his sublime sincerity and his inspired vision.

“If it were the author’s purpose to write a course in ethics, as he himself suggests, how does it happen that he chose the most difficult manner?” Montalvo queries. Rising above the artist and lover of noble form, he sometimes enjoyed considering himself as a kind of magistrate or Roman senator wrapped in the toga of solemnity and rhetoric, a kind of priest or seer enveloped in the majesty of sacred oratory, and was often tempted to write an eloquent treatise in which the soul’s gravity and greatness should have untrammelled scope. But he possessed in equal or even greater degree than that solemn gift the gift of burlesque invention, of enormous laughter, of mock-serious emphasis, of epic buffoonery and superlative irony. In the creation of his Don Quixote, with innate and surpassing skill he makes admirable use of this dual power of his genius. No one has better perceived or more accurately caught both the humorous charm and the greatness of Quixote. No one could with greater art revive the Knight of the Rueful Countenance to embark on new adventures from which he emerges as usual vanquished but invincible.

If it is true that while perusing *Don Quixote* every reader shares Cervantes’ experience while writing it; if from the mockery and laughter inspired at first by a too-mad Don Quixote and a too-sane Sancho, one passes insensibly to commiseration, sympathy, and the warmest and most human friendship, this affection was decisive in the case of Montalvo. For him, even more than for the author of the *Life of Don Quixote and Sancho*, the Knight really existed, as an actual living person. In the solitude of Ipiales, set on a desolate plain like La Mancha, Montalvo kept Don Quixote at his side as companion, confidant, solace, and example. He saw his friend among real men, taking part in local affairs, and in his hallucination disclosing, behind the fallacious truth of our reality, his higher and more veracious truth.

Montalvo is indignant because Avellaneda reviles Don Quixote; he grieves because Cervantes himself ridicules him in one passage. Montalvo shields him from every predicament which might be derogatory; and although he exposes him to the mockery, troubles, and hazards of fortune connected with knight errantry, he is never false to the sensitive and intimate admiration which he professes for his hero. The irony of the tale therefore brings to the most doughty deeds and the most serious discourses not “the laughter of

the buffoon," but a smile from the heart, full of comprehension and sympathy, in wisely implicit understanding with the reader. The insane hero diverts him with his madness, and captivates him with his nobility and wisdom.

Montalvo made the *Quixote* his constant school. From his early youth he knew it almost by heart. He did not have to reread it to feed himself upon it in his bookless solitude. He carried it into exile not *with* him, but *in* him. What better counselor in his adversity than Cervantes? But Montalvo was a devotee of Don Quixote rather than of Cervantes.

Sympathy and similarity of genius revealed to him the living secret, the human charm of the greatness and misery of Don Quixote: thus he could resuscitate him in body and soul without profanation. Rather than an imitation or a mechanical reproduction of the masterpiece, Montalvo's work is, as it were, the natural development and continuation of the life infused into the original and here imprisoned with the glowing love of one who felt himself possessed by that immortal spirit.

Montalvo extends his understanding to the good squire Sancho; the latter appears not as a voracious glutton but as the affectionate servant, who in his heart is fascinated by the great soul of his mad master, an overgrown child in need of his care. The detestable Sancho is the cautious and self-assured man, who will not abandon his home to follow any knight-errant, but rather leaves him alone, slanders and discourages him. The good Sancho fulfills an ideal mission by faithfully serving the master whose madness he shares, notwithstanding all his proverbs. Yet there is a certain quixotism in Sancho, who prefers to a peaceful meal with Teresa and Sanchica what seems to him an absurd and vaguely glorious life following Don Quixote. The philosophy of the book is found in the contrast not so much between the two figures as between the sanity of their words and the madness of their acts; this is true not only of Don Quixote but of Sancho as well.

The philosophic interpretation of Quixotism, set forth in *El Buscapié* and interrelated with the story, does not hinder the freedom and animation with which the fabled and real knight continues his adventures. Although Montalvo's purpose was to write a didactic work, these chapters are an extravaganza, full of reality and realities; an admirable novel, perhaps the first in merit in Hispanic American literature, as well as one of the first in time.

To pass the enforced leisure of exile, Montalvo might have amused himself with another *Don Juan de Flor* as romantic as that brief composition written elsewhere. He always felt the allure of the Byronic fascination for seduction, the poetry of the ill-omened beauty of evil and passion: iridescent reflections of that imaginative

eroticism are to be found in some very curious pages. But despite the longing with which he recalled the Manfreds and Childe Harolds, the chaste and beloved figure of the Knight always had a profound attraction for Montalvo. Of the two prototypes (not so contradictory in their virile temper as might be thought), which were the alternate objects of Montalvo's romantic dreams, the "righter of wrongs" was more akin to his belligerent and generous nature. He had in him more of Don Quixote than of Don Juan. As he himself said, "The man who is not something of a Don Quixote does not deserve the respect or the affection of his fellow-beings."

While in all Montalvo's writings the author and the man go hand in hand, here we have his complete image in its most finished form, in both the moral and the literary sense. This bold attempt shows him in the fullness of his gifts. Not even here, not even in this book of pure enjoyment, of the most expansive intellectual recreation, could Montalvo renounce any of his characteristic traits. He himself confesses to taking from real life, for satirization under a thin veil of fiction, persons or events offering to his sense of justice or desire for revenge a butt for epic laughter. Therefore his delight in controversy persists here in the constant caricaturist, who lurks behind the circumspect philosopher and the magnanimous idealist.—Who these personages may have been matters little to the meaning and the interest of the novel; to ascertain their identity would have merely a local, gossipy, and transitory importance. Furthermore, so general in type and vague in outline are their characters that they make no especial mark on the book. The essential feature is the admirable interpretation or prolongation of Don Quixote and Sancho, who are of universal interest. This was, in fact, the point of view of the author who, as is known by his confidences to a friend, removed from the *Capítulos*, years after they were first written, a considerable number of allusions and personalities, altering names, omitting, correcting, forgiving. When he remarks: "I have written a *Quirote* for Spanish America, and by no means for Spain," it should be understood that he is moved by modesty, or by the misgivings which would have been banished if he could have foreseen the welcome which such Spanish authors as Valera, Núñez de Arce and others had in store for his book. It is true that neither the characters, the environment, nor the atmosphere is peculiarly American. At most, just as Flaubert saw in the *Quirote* those Spanish roads which are never described, there may be felt here, in one scene or another, a passing breeze from Ecuadorean peaks. It is perhaps to be regretted that Montalvo never seriously thought of giving us the *Don Quirote* of America, or at least the *Tartarin* of the Andes. However, this is no less than Don Quixote de la Mancha redivivus. How can we complain?

## POSTPONEMENT OF THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

BY resolution of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at its session held on May 4, 1932, the Seventh International Conference of American States, scheduled to meet at Montevideo, Uruguay, was postponed from December, 1932, to December, 1933. The Government of Uruguay was requested to indicate the precise date for the opening of the Conference.

The action of the Governing Board followed a suggestion made at the meeting held in April that the Conference be postponed for a year and the receipt of the following communication from the Government of Uruguay concurring in the suggestion:

The Government of the Republic of Uruguay has taken note of the communication of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union transmitted through the intermediary of the Chargé d'Affaires of Uruguay at Washington, and has decided on its part to approve the suggestion that the Seventh International Conference of American States be held in December, 1933. The Government of Uruguay resolved not to take the initiative with respect to a change in date of the Seventh Conference, either to advance or to postpone it, because the City of Montevideo having been honored as the seat of the next Conference, it devolved upon this Government to be ready to receive the delegates of the Sister Nations of the Continent, on the date that might be most convenient, in view of the international situation and in accordance with the regulations; the tranquil atmosphere of Montevideo and the cordial sentiments of the Government of Uruguay toward all the nations of America being favorable to this procedure.

In approving the resolution on the postponement of the Conference, the Governing Board adopted an explanatory statement reading as follows:

The program of the Seventh International Conference of American States contains many questions, especially under the heading of juridical and economic problems, which will require prolonged preparatory study prior to the assembling of the Conference. The Pan American Union has requested the preparation of technical studies and draft projects by the American Institute of International Law, the Permanent Committee on Public International Law at Rio de Janeiro, the Permanent Committee on Private International Law of Montevideo, and the Permanent Committee on Uniformity of Legislation and Comparative Legislation at Habana.

It has become apparent to the Governing Board that even with the exercise of the greatest industry it will not be possible to complete these preparatory studies and projects in time to submit them to the Governments sufficiently far in advance of the meeting of the Conference.

Under the headings of *Economic Problems*, and *Transportation*, there are also a number of questions which call for the submission of well-considered projects long in advance of the coming together of the delegations at Montevideo.



Since the final formulation and adoption of the program by the Governing Board, considerable work has been done on these questions, but the projects in which will be embodied the results of these studies have not yet been formulated.

The Governing Board has given much weight to these considerations, and after consultation with the Government of Uruguay, it has been determined that the postponement of the Conference until December, 1933, is essential in order to complete the studies and permit the formulation of projects to be considered at the Conference.

The postponement of the Conference will afford opportunity to the respective Governments to carefully consider the results of the preparatory work and determine their attitude on the important questions to be discussed. Through such postponement the significance and importance of the Montevideo Conference will be greatly strengthened.

Following action on the date of the Conference the Board adopted a resolution urging the American Institute of International Law and the Permanent Committees on International Law to continue the work of preparation for the Conference with a view to having the projects on the various topics of the program available not later than November, 1932. These projects will then be forwarded to the respective governments in order that they may be made the object of detailed study and instructions to the respective delegations.

The regulations for the Seventh Pan American Conference were approved by the Governing Board at the above-mentioned session.



# A NATURALIST IN HONDURAS

By JAMES A. G. REHN

*Secretary of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia*

OF all Central American countries, Honduras has remained for over a century the least known biologically. Until the last few years nearly all the limited scientific field work which had been done was carried on in the north coast rain-forest, while the mist-draped mountain summits of the interior, with their areas of cloud-forest, were virtually unstudied. Of the animal life of the extensive stretches of pineland which cover the greater part of the country, our knowledge was almost as meager.

During the last three decades of the past century and the first of the present, through the financial support and unstinted personal labors of F. DuCane Godman and Osbert Salvin, continued field exploration and correlated laboratory studies of many specialists gave to the world the *Biologia Centrali-Americana*, a series of volumes on the classification and distribution of the animals and plants of Mexico and Central America. This monumental work stands without an equal, and, even though our knowledge in many fields has so expanded that certain portions of it are antiquated to-day, this classic series of volumes will always remain an indispensable requisite for the naturalist working with mid-American life. For certain reasons, but chiefly due to the disturbed character of the country during the period when *Biologia* field work was actively pressed, Honduras was of necessity virtually disregarded in these field investigations, and for this consideration alone, if for no other, it stands to-day the most desirable country in Central America for critical investigation of its interesting and varied life. The problems concerned with the origin and distribution of the biota of the subtropical cloud-forests naturally require for their correct solution such evidence as may be found in the numerous detached areas of this intensely absorbing and strange environment. Similarly the east coast rain-forest must be more fully studied for a correct appraisal of it and its animal and plant life, when compared with the more northern outposts of the rain-forest in southeastern Mexico and that of British Honduras and the Motagua River and Lake Izabal regions,<sup>1</sup> on the one hand, and the vaster tracts of eastern Nicaragua, on the other. The pinelands as well suggest many

<sup>1</sup> Part of the territory under dispute between Guatemala and Honduras. The boundary question is now being arbitrated. See BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, March, 1930, pp. 217-220; id., September, 1930, pp. 910-916; id., February, 1932, pp. 92-95.

queries, being, as they are, a portion of the most southern extension of this type of habitat, which is so greatly developed in Mexico and parts of the western United States, and which does not occur south of central Nicaragua.

Off the north coast of Honduras, some 30 miles or so from the shore, lies a chain of small islands known as the Bay Islands, which are considered by historical geologists to be the summits of a drowned mountain chain, probably a continuation of the Espiritu Santo range, constituting a portion of the ancient shelf which, until comparatively recent geological times, connected Jamaica and other of the Greater Antilles with this portion of Central America. Roughly parallel with



TEGUCIGALPA, HONDURAS

A general view of the capital of Honduras, situated on an inland mountain-bordered plateau, at an elevation of about 3,200 feet.

these islands on the mainland is a chain of good-sized mountains, known as the Sierra Pija, which reaches from east of the mouth of the Ulua River to near the old town of Truxillo. Inland this range is accompanied by a number of similar but shorter ranges of varied trend.

Between the broad valleys of the Ulua and Chamelecon Rivers in Honduras and that of the Motagua River is an extensive and sharply elevated mountain system, the Espiritu Santo group, while to the eastward of its more southern extremity the whole interior of Honduras is filled with a criss-cross of numerous mountain groups of varying height and extent. A number rise to elevations well over 6,500 feet above the sea, and in length are as great as 24 to 36 miles. While the broad and relatively low valleys of the Ulua and Chamelecon

Rivers carry extensive areas of open land with little timber, the higher intermontane stretches, which are often many miles across, bear magnificent open stands of tall pine, as already mentioned, in character and ground condition much like similar forests in Mexico and Arizona. As the western coast and the Gulf of Fonseca are neared the descent from pineland elevations takes us into a distinctly arid region, which borders the immediate coast, back of the tidal mangrove swamps, and also reaches for many miles into the interior along the larger watercourses. Thus we can find the paradoxical situation of arid interior valleys virtually under the shadow of cloud-forest-draped peaks.

During the spring of 1930 it was possible for the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia to carry out a long-desired natural history reconnoissance of the interior country of Honduras. The writer was placed in charge of this work, and had as his companions Mr. John T. Emlen, jr., and Mr. C. Brooke Worth, both young ornithologists of promise and ability. The Government of the Republic of Honduras, through Their Excellencies President Vicente Mejía Colindres and Señor Don Jesús Ulloa, Minister of Foreign Relations, extended every possible courtesy and assistance to our expedition, and thus facilitated our work very greatly.

It had been planned to devote the major portion of our available time to the investigation of the subtropical cloud-forest, and accordingly we selected a base as near as possible to that condition. This was at the American-owned Rosario silver mine of the New York & Honduras Rosario Mining Co., some 20 miles northeast of Tegucigalpa, on the north slope of the Sierra San Juancito.

We reached Puerto Barrios July 1, 1930, and traveled over the International Railways of Central America, via Zacapa, Guatemala, and San Salvador, reaching La Unión, El Salvador, July 4. Crossing the beautiful Gulf of Fonseca, by way of the island entry port of Amapala, to San Lorenzo, we started for the capital city of Tegucigalpa by automobile over the recently built road which stretches for almost a hundred miles between Pacific tidewater and the seat of the national government, in that distance climbing from sea level to as high as 4,900 feet. The completion of this most important highway, accompanied as it has been by the development of other main arteries for vehicular travel, is an evidence of the progressive and enlightened administration which Honduras has enjoyed for some years past, and which friends of Honduras elsewhere fully appreciate for its constructive vision and broad grasp of national needs and problems.

Leaving an arid acacia-covered country dotted with cacti at San Lorenzo, we soon climbed into a moister land with a very different plant cover, and still ascending reached the pine-clad slopes of the Sierra Lepaterique. When we topped this ridge—in reality the

southern border of the basin in which lies Tegucigalpa—as evening fell, the lights of this least visited of Central American capitals twinkled below us, and soon we were in the narrow streets and among the heavily walled houses of the older part of the city.

Relatively few Americans know Tegucigalpa, which in some respects resembles San Jose de Costa Rica, but seems to show in many of its buildings a different type of Spanish-American architecture, probably due to a preponderance of influence from the Mexican seat of Spanish administration to the north. It is necessary to go back but a limited



Photograph by James A. G. Rehn

A CLOUD FOREST OF HONDURAS

A view over the slopes of Sierra San Juancito.

number of years to reach the time when the journey from Tegucigalpa to the Caribbean coast was a mule-back trip of days, and when the much shorter one to the Pacific was all but impossible under unfavorable weather conditions.

From Tegucigalpa to Rosario the ox-cart road passes through a variety of upland country and finally leaves behind open pinelands and enters the cloud-forest which, except where cleared for mine and other timber, clothes all the higher levels of the Sierra San Juancito. The road pass is at an altitude of about 6,890 feet and far down the north slope is the mining camp of Rosario, while 1,350 feet below the camp nestles the village of San Juancito.

The cloud-forest was our greatest attraction about Rosario. Its present lower edge is nearly 650 feet above the camp, but in its undisturbed condition the cloud-forest reaches down in many places to as low as the elevation of Rosario, or about 4,900 feet. The lower edge of average cloud height represents the usual lower margin of this strange, moisture-soaked life zone. During the rainy season, when our visit was made, most mornings find the entire upper reaches of



A WATERFALL IN THE  
CLOUD FOREST

Numerous waterfalls of varying size are found throughout the dense growth of the moisture-soaked forests.

Photograph by James A. G. Rehn

these interior mountains fog bathed, swathed in blankets of white cloud masses, which often burn away if the sun can make itself sufficiently felt, yet frequently mantle the mountain heights and drench them with light rain or soaking "Scotch mist" the entire day, or even for days at a stretch. Again the fog may burn away one hour only to return with added obscurity the next. The most frequent weather features of the cloud-forest are fog, rain, or heavy drizzle and damp chill; the most usual sound the drip of water; the general condition moisture saturation to the *n*th degree.

The tree components of the cloud-forest vary considerably in height and in bulk, as well as in the great variety of the species representing a number of families. The more usual types found in lowland rain-forests are unrepresented or in the minority, and most of the taller trees are festooned and garlanded with unbelievably dense and matted vines and creepers which, like blankets, often obscure the whole form of the tree crowns, drape the projecting branches with pendant streamers of epiphytes and creepers of various types, and mantle the trunks and boles with heavy plate-like encrustings of mosses, ferns, and other epiphytes of infinite variety. Tree ferns and ground ferns of many species add their beautiful foliage to the heavy ground cover, which on the usually steep slopes makes cloud-forest penetration not easy. Everything oozes moisture from the clouds and the frequent rains, the ground is never dry, trickling rills are everywhere, and waterfalls, often of considerable size, demonstrate the extent to which these forests serve as water distributors for much of the lower country.

The birds of the cloud-forest are of the greatest interest and probably less is known about them than about those of any other part of Central America. In our work in the cloud-forest of the San Juancito range our expedition collected three types previously unknown to science. The great *quetzal*, or resplendent trogon, the Guatemalan national bird, is here at home, as well as green toucans, strange parrots and quail, while woodhewers and antthrushes of many species, flycatchers, black thrushes, gray solitaires and humming-birds of varied type are confined to these gloomy and mysterious woods.



THE QUETZAL

The quetzal, or resplendent trogon, whose habitat is the timbered districts of Central America, is a beautifully plumaged bird about the size of a small pigeon.

Insect life is of the greatest diversity, but during the day does not thrust itself upon the attention, as is often the case in the lowland rain forest. One must search industriously for most of the insect denizens except on those occasional nights when, for reasons still unexplained, the moth world suddenly comes to life, and the few lights near the cloud-forest are deluged with a myriad of moths of many species—some, like the giant *Thysania agrippina*, as large as 10 inches across the wings. In the single one of these evenings at Rosario we secured more than 40 species of moths.

Cloud-forests like that here described are distributed on many mountain ranges, under conditions of similar elevation and climatic control (*i.e.*, saturation and relative coolness), from southern Mexico to southern South America. Their relationship to other life elements remains essentially the same everywhere, their general characteristics basically identical. Personally I have studied them in Colombia and Costa Rica as well as in Honduras, and to me they are by all odds the most alluring, mysterious, and, withal, the most distinctive of forests.

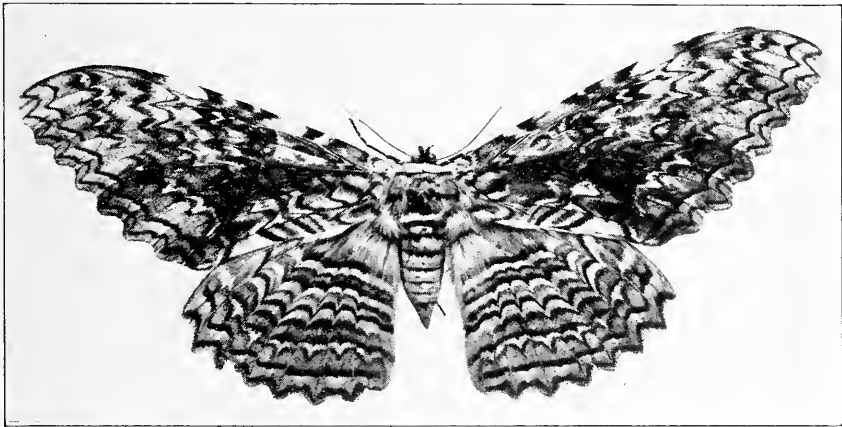
One of the debated questions among naturalists interested in faunistic problems is whence came the life of the subtropical cloud-forest. Was it derived originally from the lowland rain-forest or does it represent an even older life element, formerly much more broadly distributed in relatively recent geological times when the world was damper and probably cooler, and is it not to-day a remnant of that from which the lowland rain-forest has been derived? Only by intensive study can a solution of this question which will answer all queries, geological as well as biological, be reached.

From Rosario the view to the north and northeast is over the deep and broad valley of the upper Rio Choluteca, the river itself nearly 2,900 feet below, the Chile Mountains which flank the valley on the opposite side being 19 miles or more distant. Descending the north slope of the San Juancito Mountains from Rosario we soon enter the pine-forest belt, where the great clean shafts of a pine much like the bull pine of the western United States dominate a landscape of rolling slopes. The stands are quite open, and mingled with the pine is often found a broad-leaved palm, while most of the ground cover suggests the piney woods of the southern United States. The resemblance to the bull-pine region of the western United States and of Mexico is a real one and holds true for many elements of the animal life. Here we find a gray fox, called locally *gato del monte* (cat of the forest), road-running cuckoos, ant-eating and hairy woodpeckers, flickers, band-tailed pigeons, Steller's jays, chipping sparrows, and bluebirds, all suggestive of Arizona, while, on the other hand, we have trogons, squirrel cuckoos, ladder-backed pileated woodpeckers,



and numerous other birds, all of a truly tropical origin. The insect life supplements the bird life, and the relationship of this life area to great stretches of similar country to the northward is clearly evident. The infiltration of tropical types is probably due to propinquity, but nevertheless basic elements of this fauna are the same from Honduras and Nicaragua north to Arizona, California, and even Oregon.

Descending toward the lower part of the Choluteca Valley we leave the pine belt at about 2,900 feet elevation, and enter a hotter, drier, more arid type of country, with trees largely thorny, acacia-like, dry savanna grasslands, tall wild cane areas and the patches of forest small, localized, dense and tangled with vines and creepers, while spiny-leaved agaves are much in evidence. Cultivated land is here



Photograph by James A. G. Rehn

#### ONE OF THE WORLD'S LARGEST MOTHS

The *Thysania agrippina*, one of the many species of moths found in the vicinity of Rosario. This specimen measured  $10\frac{1}{2}$  inches across the spread wings.

largely in sugarcane, and cattle raising is, as in many other parts of Honduras, the chief industry. This semiarid river valley is an inland extension of the arid Pacific coast tropical strip, which reaches along that littoral from Mexico to Panama with few interruptions. The little community of Cantarranas was our base of operations in the Choluteca Valley, and we soon made the acquaintance of an animal world quite different from that of the cloud-forest or of the pine belt. The great long-tailed jay, noisy derby and striped flycatchers, motmots, Inca doves, blue and gold tanagers, and laughing falcons gave a very different background to the bird life of the district, while along the river we met cormorants, anhingas, and tiger bitterns.

The Rio Choluteca at Cantarranas proved to be the home of the strange so-called "four-eyed fish" (*Anableps tetraphthalmus*), which has the eyes divided in two, the upper section for vision above the

surface film, the lower for underwater sight. Usually swimming on the surface with merely the two rounded protuberances of the eyes evident, the fish is easily frightened, whereupon it disappears and travels for some distance before the "periscopes" emerge again. This species, peculiar to the west coast of Central America, and another from the Orinoco region are the sole members of this group of unusual fishes.

Returning to Tegucigalpa, we traveled by automobile stage across the interior country, through the communities of Comayagua and Siguatepeque, across the strikingly beautiful Lake Yojoa by ferry to



Photograph by James A. G. Rehn

#### LAKE YOJOA

One of the beauty spots of Honduras and the principal lake in the country. It is 25 miles in length and 6 miles in width.

Potrerrillos, where the present terminus of the National Railway was reached. The road over which, in 14 hours, we traveled the nearly 185 miles to Potrerillos is in large part of recent construction, and presents a splendid illustration of the far-sighted public works policy of the Government of Honduras. Although between Tegucigalpa and Lake Yojoa it crosses several considerable mountain ranges, the highway work has been carefully executed and the trip is one never to be forgotten for its splendid panoramas of the mountain-bordered interior valleys and of Lake Yojoa.

The National Railway carried us down the broad Sula Valley to Campana, where we ferried across the Chamelecon and Ulua Rivers

to the Tela Railroad at Melcher, and then on through endless banana lands to Tela, near which, at Lancetilla, our final work was planned.

Lancetilla, the site of the famous Tela "snake farm" and the Agricultural Experiment Station of the United Fruit Co., is situated in a narrow valley on the north face of the coastal Sierra Pija. The spur ridges encircling the little Lancetilla Valley are clothed with dense lowland rain-forest, the tropics *par excellence*. This forest is a portion of that great belt which reaches, in suitable environments and under favorable climatic conditions, from southern Mexico to Amazonia and beyond. Rain-forest trees are, on the average, tall, many are enormous in girth, and some of the greatest value economically.



THE PIER AT TELA, HONDURAS

A northern coast port of the Republic, through which great quantities of bananas are exported annually.

This is the land of the true mahogany, and here forest giants of many species, mingled with corozo palms bearing leaves nearly 33 feet long, tangled with lianes and other creepers, and decked with bizarre aroids and other epiphytes, make up the forest. Like many tropical forests elsewhere, this is double decked, with a lower story distinct and separate from the leafy dome which, over all else, shuts out the sky.

Howling monkeys, marmosets, sloths, jaguar, agoutis, tree porcupines, tapir and many other neotropical types of mammals make this forest their home, and the bird world is as distinctive and even more varied than that of the cloud-forest of the high mountains. Our knowledge of it, however, is proportionately greater, as considerable ornithological work has been done on Honduran rain-forest birds, but in spite of this the available information is by no means even approx-

imately complete, and every sizeable collection, such as our own, adds new information on occurrence, distribution, and habits, if not species, new to science.

The insect life of the rain-forest is in bewildering variety, but while many of the species are readily seen, the far greater bulk of this astounding world of life is found only by long-continued search, on foliage, on and under bark, under dead leaves and stones upon the forest floor, tucked in hanging dead leaves, in the water pockets of tree-dwelling bromeliads, in blossoms, and many other places. Some insects haunt the "sunlight holes," where an opening in the green roof of the forest is responsible for a sunny patch of under vegetation, while others frequent only the darkest and most obscure recesses. An occasional brilliant metallic blue *Morpho* butterfly flits past in strong but apparently effortless flight, a large beetle drones by, amazingly formed, and colored true bugs top the clusters of weedy plants and throw off the most poignantly hideous stench if disturbed, while clear-winged butterflies flit in aimless fashion from one cluster of blossoms to another. The endless life of the rain-forest is on every side, although often hardly evident, as when the curtain of rain brings to the forest an indescribable pall-like gloom, but still it is there in amazing diversity, and the naturalist's task is to find the components of this life, their character, their relations and interdependence, their possible origin and history.

Our time having drawn to a close, we left Lancetilla for home, laden with material and information. The scientific results of our work will be issued in the technical publications of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia. As is always the case, these contributions are just beginning to be made known to the world, for laboratory studies require far more time and effort than the layman realizes. The reports on the collections now in press, each in its respective field, contain more information than was known from all previous investigations in Honduras. The succeeding studies will in greater part be equally important and ground breaking.

In addition to the cordial assistance and cooperation of the Honduran Government already mentioned, the Academy's expedition was the recipient of every possible courtesy from the Governments of the Republic of Guatemala and that of El Salvador in connection with the entry and transit through their respective territories of the personnel and equipment of the expedition.

## AN EIGHTEENTH CENTURY SCIENTIST IN COLOMBIA: JOSÉ CELESTINO MUTIS<sup>1</sup>

**A**MONG the notable figures in science contemporary with Linnaeus, Humboldt, and Bonpland was José Celestino Mutis, a Spaniard by birth, who found in the Colombia of the last half of the eighteenth century an almost virgin field for his investigations in botany and other branches of natural history. This erudite and versatile man was for 25 years the head of a great botanical expedition; founder of the first astronomical observatory in the Western Hemisphere, established in Bogota in 1802; the discoverer of the nocturnal variation of the barometer; co-author of a grammar of Colombian Indian languages, prepared to satisfy a request which Catherine the Great of Russia made of the King of Spain; metallurgist who worked eight years improving methods of mining; priest; and beloved teacher of natural science.

Mutis, who was born in Cadiz in 1732, showed an especial aptitude for mathematics in his early studies, pursued in Seville, but later he specialized in medicine and taught anatomy in the University of Madrid, also studying botany in that city. In 1760 he was invited by Don Pedro Mesia de la Cerda, Viceroy of New Granada (known to us as the Republic of Colombia), to accompany him thither as his physician. Mutis accepted, and embarked for that distant colony where he was to remain until his death, in 1808. The lure of a new flora, already celebrated for the American drugs, quinine, balsam of Tolu, and cocaine, "the divine plant of the Incas," greatly influenced him in his decision, and he was consequently much irked by the demands upon his professional attention which for several years prevented him from leaving the capital. In the meantime, however, he gave public lectures on mathematics and Newtonian philosophy, and became the first professor of natural history in the Colegio del Rosario, that school of noble tradition, inspiring his students with a deep interest in his subject and defending publicly for the first time in America the planetary system of Copernicus. It is difficult now to realize that this was an intrepid act.

His predilections for natural science continued to increase with his residence in the New World, and in 1763 he sent a memorial to the King of Spain through the Viceroy petitioning the compilation of a natural history of America. No reply was received to this letter; and it was 20 years later that Charles III of Spain, a progressive and enlightened monarch, gave a favorable reception to Mutis's long-

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<sup>1</sup> See the tribute of the Governing Board to the memory of Mutis, pp. 435 to 437.—EDITOR.



JOSÉ CELESTINO MUTIS

1732-1808.

cherished idea. The King made him head botanist and astronomer of the Royal Botanical Expedition of northern South America, had the necessary books and instruments purchased, and assigned him a number of assistants, some of whom were to make paintings of the new plants found. Thereupon Mutis settled in Mariquita, near the Magdalena River, where the abundance of tropical flora offered him an excellent opportunity for his studies. These he pursued with the greatest diligence, analyzing new plants especially with a view to their medicinal properties.

Mutis's initiative was followed in other colonies, and by 1796 there were similar expeditions in Chile, Peru, Mexico, and Central America. Their joint purpose was to study the flora of America and assemble

specimens for a museum in Madrid which should be the marvel of all Europe.

At the end of eight years Mutis returned to Bogota for the sake of his health, taking with him a large number of drawings and much material. Here the personnel of the botanical expedition settled down in spacious quarters equipped with a large library and numerous pieces of scientific apparatus. Thirteen painters were now at work, and an enthusiastic group of young men, headed by Francisco José de Caldas, who is noted not only as a scientist but as a martyr of Colombian independence, came to study with the master.

"The fame of Mutis reached its zenith in 1801," writes Dr. Carlos E. Chardón, of the University of Puerto Rico, "when he received a visit from the traveler and naturalist Alexander von Humboldt. The latter had landed at Cumana, Venezuela, in 1799, accompanied by the French botanist Aimé Bonpland. In 1800 they explored the sources of the Orinoco, Casiquiare, and Negro Rivers, and since they had to go to Peru, they decided to ascend the Magdalena and spend several weeks in Bogota in order to become acquainted with Mutis. The arrival of these illustrious travelers in Bogota was a great occasion, giving rise to many social events. Humboldt was lodged near Mutis, with whom he exchanged vows of sincere and lasting friendship. The German scientist was amazed at Mutis's monumental work on the flora of New Granada, which already was composed of more than 6,000 colored drawings and 13 manuscript volumes. On their return to Europe, Humboldt and Bonpland inserted in the section on *Plantas Equinoxiales* of the celebrated account of their journeys a portrait of Mutis, with the following inscription: "To Don José Celestino Mutis, director of the Royal Botanical Expedition of the New Kingdom of Granada, astronomer of Santa Fe de Bogotá, as a slight testimony of admiration and friendship. A. Humboldt and Aimé Bonpland."

Spain and her viceroyalty of New Granada were not alone in benefiting by the researches of Mutis, for the European museums and the books on natural history published in his time were indebted to this faithful and obliging correspondent. The elder Linnaeus is said to have owed him a great part of his knowledge of American flora, and the Stockholm Academy elected him a member in recognition of his services to that institution, while other scientists joined in calling him "the patriarch of botanists of the New World."

The commercial use of plants as well as the medicinal was of interest to Mutis. In Mariquita he tried to acclimatize various trees and plants from distant regions, especially several cinnamon trees which he and the Archbishop-Viceroy Caballero y Góngora hoped to make the basis of a thriving industry. One of his most important botanical discoveries was that of the existence of quinine trees in the neighborhood of Bogota, theretofore known to flourish only in Ecuador.

His quinology was not published until 1828, 20 years after his death, but it was considered that his researches on this subject brought large sums of money to Spanish trade.

In 1793 the Royal Government had inquired as to the progress of the Botanical Expedition, sending a special agent to inform himself as to its work. He reported that it would be most useful to the public and a great honor to the nation, and recommended that the drawings already made should be printed in Spain. To the great loss of science, this recommendation was not followed. In 1816, during the course of the War of Independence, Morillo, "the Pacifier," ordered the specimens, drawings, and notes of Mutis shipped to the Spanish capital. The King and Queen themselves examined the treasure, packed in 105 boxes, which the labors of Mutis had presented to the nation, and recognized that he had more than fulfilled the duty which had been confided to him. Sad to say, the collections of Mutis in zoology, mineralogy, and botany were dispersed among various museums without notations as to their origin; the herbarium of more than 20,000 specimens was not unpacked for many years, until it had fallen prey to the ravages of dampness and insects; the classification of barks, woods, and seeds was lost. The drawings, however, made with exquisite care under the eye of Mutis and colored with pigments native to Colombia, are still cherished in the Botanical Garden of Madrid, although they were titled by another.

"*Nomen immortale, quod nulla aetas nunquam delebit*," said Linnaeus of Mutis. It may seem that the mischances of fortune were bent on effacing the name of Mutis when his great collection was dispersed, but it lives effectively in the National Observatory of Colombia which he founded, and in those contributions to botany which his fellow scientists from generation to generation hold in admiration and esteem.





# THE TREASURE OF MONTE ALBAN

By BEATRICE NEWHALL

*Assistant Editor of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*

EVER since January 16, 1932, when the news was first published that Señor Alfonso Caso, a rising young Mexican archæologist, had found rare treasure in a tomb on Monte Alban in the State of Oaxaca, the subject has been headline news all over the world. The enthusiasm aroused everywhere by the discovery was unusually keen throughout all Mexico, and the desire of the public to see for itself the objects, popularly known as "the jewels," was so intense and widespread that early in March they were exhibited in Mexico City, partly to satisfy public curiosity, partly to secure, by means of a "voluntary contribution" required of all visitors, funds for further research.

The exhibition was held in two rooms set apart for the purpose in the National Museum. The first one contained pottery and similar articles uncovered at Monte Alban; the average visitor gave little more than a passing glance to the large exhibit, so well arranged and carefully labeled, but continued at once to the second room, where a more spectacular portion of the discoveries was on display. The more observing person, however, examined with great interest the three elaborate funerary urns of reddish clay from the now famous Tomb No. 7. They are square, about 20 or 22 inches high, including the feet; the lids rest on hollow bases about 10 inches on a side, protruding masks at the corners making the outer length about 15 inches. The lids represent a human head, chest, and arms; in each case, the figure wears an elaborate headdress retaining traces of red paint. One is somewhat larger than the other two, and is further differentiated from them by the fact that the face is bearded. In all three the figures wear elaborate necklaces or pectorals and ear ornaments.

The inner room contained the objects of greater intrinsic value and popular appeal. To the nonscientific visitor the fact that the gold had been cleaned and the luster restored to much of the jewelry added to the interest of the exhibit, for he was spared the difficult task of deciphering details of unfamiliar forms.

Four blackened silver rings had been left untouched, showing how time and the elements can disguise delicate workmanship. They are of solid metal, the ring being about half an inch wide with an additional piece, somewhat like a shield, about three-quarters of an inch wide and

usually the same height, although occasionally a little higher, added in front. The band has a geometric design applied in filigree; to the shield, an eagle with filigree wings and tail spread in downward flight is attached. The eagle's head is modeled in high relief; at each side is a small bell pendant from the wings, and from the beak is suspended what might be a conventional representation of the sun, a circle on a wider base, from which hang five more bells.

The exhibit contained five burnished gold rings of the same basic design, although different in some important details. One, very similar to the silver rings, is a little larger; it was the only gold ring



ENTRANCE TO TOMB  
NO. 7, MONTE ALBAN

At the right stands Señor Alfonso Caso, the archeologist whose investigations at Oaxaca led to the discovery of the famous treasure deposited in this tomb.

Courtesy of Jack Starr-Hunt

in which the eagle's filigree wings and tail were separate from the ring itself. The other rings have the eagle's head, in full relief, issuing from the top of the shield at right angles, above a barely indicated body; the wings are outlined in applied filigree to the background, but the claws are, like the head, in high relief. From the beak and from each claw hangs a small pendant with bells.

A style of adornment rather alien to us of the present day was the use of plugs for the ears, nose, or lower lip. Of the lip-plugs there was an example perfect in design and execution—an eagle's head exquisitely carved in jade or jadeite, mounted in a bilobed gold stud. In excellence of carving, sophistication of treatment, and mastery of styliza-

tion, this piece ranks high, and would be an honor to any craftsman of any era.

The gold ornaments for nose or ears are of the same delicate workmanship that characterizes the rings, but some have in addition a humorous touch which is altogether delightful. Two of them have, on an openwork circular background, a repoussé human head with the beak of an eagle instead of a nose, from which hangs a pendant and bells; one in particular is interesting because to the pendant, a conventionalized design of the sun, depends, between two bells, an ascending eagle with four more bells suspended from his tail. Another human head is apparently sticking out his tongue, and from it hang the usual two bells with the eagle between; in this case, however, the bird is little more than an eaglet, for his round smooth body and tiny filigree wings and tail (with three small bells attached), really resemble a chicken rather than a full grown monarch of the air. A striking ornament of this type consists of a somewhat larger openwork beaded circle from which protrudes a large crested eagle's head, his filigree wings, tail, and claws within the circle; he is depicted in descending flight, and in his beak he holds an elaborate pendant with four bells.

Rock crystal and jade or jadeite ear plugs were more interesting for the material from which they were fashioned and for their symmetry than for any artistic merit. They were thick rings, some two, some three inches in diameter, with a small hollow center and a deep groove in the outer edge, around which apparently the pierced ear lobe was fitted.

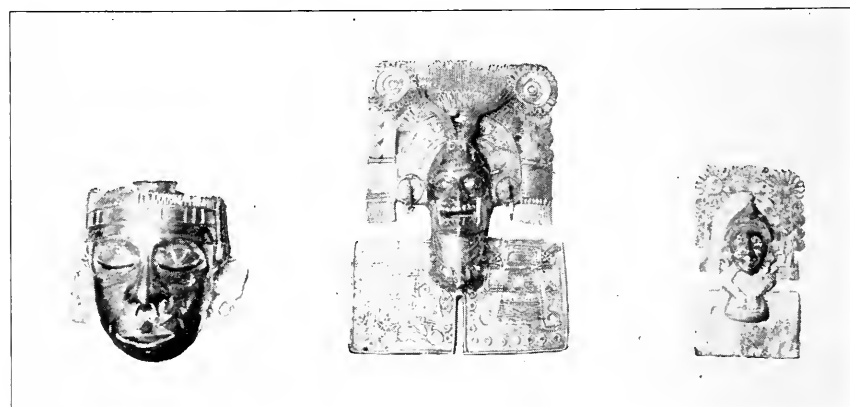
Beads in great numbers, of all sizes, shapes, and materials, strung and unstrung, figured largely in the exhibition. Some, especially the round gold ones, have a startlingly modern look—there was one string of beads approximately half an inch in diameter, another, of smaller ones interspersed with bells, still another, of beads with applied fine gold filigree. There were rough and smooth, single and double, round and rectangular beads; the materials included gold, onyx, crystal, turquoise, jade or jadeite, and coral, not to mention the lustrous and widely heralded pearls. There were beads with and without bells attached; of the former perhaps the design that aroused the most interest was that of an incised turtleback, with four bells hanging from filigree loops. There were 16 of these beads in all, in 2 strings of 9 and 7 respectively.

In a place of honor was an elaborate pectoral necklace of 23 strands. It had been strung in a purely arbitrary manner, as the card in the case attested: "This necklace or pectoral is a reconstruction with materials found in Tomb 7. The reconstruction is based on drawings in codices and on sculpture." The first 14 strands are of turquoise, then come 3 of coral, 3 of pearl, and 3 of gold, the bottom one of which has 34 gold bells interspersed. The strands are bound together by double gold beads, of which there are 9 rows 11 deep.



# GOLD WORK FROM THE "OAXACA TREASURE"

Upper: Round and turtle-back beads, two ear or nose ornaments, the gold scepter (?), and an elaborate pectoral with symbolic filigree designs. Lower: Mask and pectorals of thin beaten gold; the center object is noteworthy for delicacy and wealth of detail.



Courtesy of Jack Starr-Hunt

The gold pectorals or breastplates were also of great interest. The most striking one is about 4 inches wide and 6½ inches high, representing a human head wearing an elaborate headdress and emerging from a hieroglyphic-covered breastplate. The repoussé face is admirably executed, revealing such force of character that there can be little doubt that it was a portrait. A singular feature, however, is that the jawbone is skeletal, while the rest of the face is covered with flesh. The headdress is wrought with unusual detail, and in the ears are ornaments with filigree eagle heads in full relief. Around the neck is displayed a three-strand necklace with a descending eagle pendant from the outer strand. The breastplate, a little wider than the headdress, is edged with a rolled band and split up the center to the neck. The hieroglyphics, which are decorative in the extreme, contain numbers, perhaps dates.

There were five other pectorals very much alike, all similar in shape and design to the one just described, but little more than half as large. The reduced size made it impossible to give as much detail in the headdress, or to keep to such fine proportions. The faces are disproportionately large and rather grotesque; they are modeled in high relief, while the arms are only outlined in filigree on the slightly indicated trunk. The arms are akimbo, the hands, below filigree bracelets, are palm down on the body, side by side, the thumbs touching. The lower part of the pectoral is a rectangle of plain beaten gold, the same width as the upper part, but only little more than half as high.

A unique object recovered from the tomb was a mask about 4 inches high of thin beaten gold, obviously a portrait. The eyes are closed, the mouth open, and from the nose dangles a separate pendant. The ears are at right angles to the head, and from them hang great gold rings or disk plugs. Around the brow is a band, which might represent a crown, surmounted by filigree work, with filigree tassels falling from the inside over each ear.

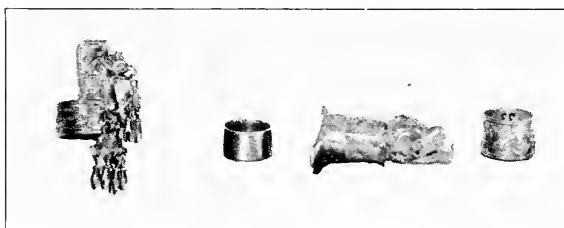
Among the articles which excited the eager interest of the visitor was a hollow gold cylindrical object, about 6 inches long, ending in a snake's head. The shank is composed of alternating bands, of varying width, of plain gold and filigree designs, open and applied; the features of the head are indicated by applied wire. For just what purpose this piece served is not known exactly—it resembles closely our idea of the conventional scepter.

A human skull, somewhat battered, was another feature of the exhibition. Originally it had been entirely inlaid with turquoise mosaic; when it was found, only a part of the inlay was intact, the

rest covering the earth around the skull, and a knife was thrust through the nose.

Two goblets, one of alabaster, the other of clear rock crystal, also evoked much admiration.

A part of the treasure which will doubtless be of importance in determining the date and history of the objects is a number of pieces of carved bone. A few are small bones with rather crude incised pictures, but the majority, the most interesting from both the archæological and the artistic point of view, are thin strips, cut with two parallel sides, one shorter than the other, and with curved ends, giving them somewhat the appearance of a double-headed paper knife. The elaborate carving is of an admirable low relief. Some have a series of similar figures—men or animals—repeated in panels separated by vertical or diagonal bands, others are continuous in design. Certain of these pieces were found near the chief skeleton of Tomb No. 7, and if, as is the general expectation, the carving thereon



ORNAMENTS FROM  
TOMB NO. 7

To the left is a gold ring decorated with an eagle. The head is in full relief on the upper portion of the shield, the body indicated only slightly; bells hang from beak and claws. Between the two single rings at the right is a lip plug, a jadeite eagle's head of consummate craftsmanship inserted in a bilobed gold stud.

prove, upon study, to include decipherable dates, they should yield invaluable information to students of archæology, in addition to the great pleasure already given to lovers of beauty.

The discovery of the treasure was one of those pleasant surprises which archæology keeps up her sleeve as a reward for her faithful servants. Early in his career, Señor Caso had become aware of the great importance to pre-Columbian history of the civilizations centered in and about what is now the State of Oaxaca. In 1928 he published a monograph on Zapotec stelæ, in the preface to which he wrote these significant words:

One of the most important of the various branches composing Mexican archæology is that which refers to the antiquities of the State of Oaxaca.

Fortified cities, such exceptional temples as those of Mitla, gold and silver work, sculpture, painting, all prove that in that corner of the Republic there flourished in ancient times great civilizations, comparable with those of the Plateau and of Central America, and certainly related to both.

But although there are abundant descriptions by enthusiastic travelers, archæologists, or amateurs, very few studies have been undertaken for the purpose of enabling us to penetrate into the mysteries of these civilizations, and to ascertain their points of contact with the Maya and Nahua cultures.

And although the literature dealing with the archæology of Oaxaca is not scanty, we realize after a perusal of it that the authors have generally repeated what others had said before them, without adding, in a majority of the cases, the results of any personal investigation or new facts which would increase our knowledge.

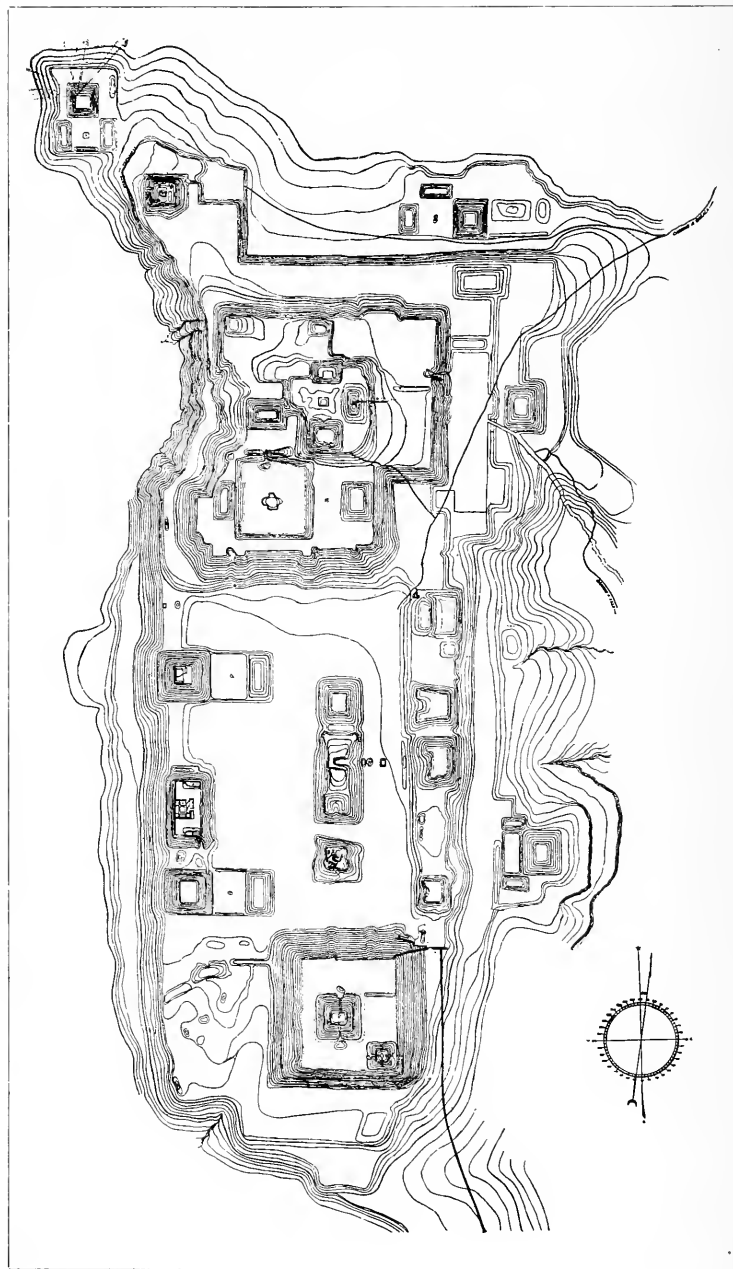
Thus, while our knowledge of Nahua or Maya archæology is constantly advancing and their problems occupy the attention of many investigators, the archæology of Oaxaca remains stationary and we have few studies adequate to serve as a basis for later investigations.

Señor Caso's interest in the archæology of Oaxaca grew as his studies progressed; through his contagious enthusiasm he was able to interest others in his vision, and finally money was obtained which enabled him last October to begin excavation and reconstruction on a fitting scale. In the exhibition rooms in the National Museum, cards bearing this legend were prominently hung:

These explorations on Monte Alban, Oaxaca, were carried out by the Bureau of Monuments of the Department of Public Education, with the collaboration of the Government of the State of Oaxaca, the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, the National University, and Mr. D. W. Morrow, Senator Eleazar del Valle, Gen. Rafael Melgar, and Dr. J. Velázquez Uriarte.

Monte Alban, where the objects were discovered, rises almost 1,000 feet above the city of Oaxaca. It has long been recognized as a very important site in the study of the Zapotec Civilization, one of the pre-Columbian cultures to attain a high degree of civilization, yet one about which comparatively little is known. The other two especially noteworthy cultures were the Maya, in the region to the south and east of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, including territory now part of the Central American Republics, and the Aztec, or, more broadly speaking, the Nahua, centering in the Valley of Mexico. The remains of the former, first called to the attention of the outside world by John L. Stephens in 1841 by the publication of his *Incidents of Travel in Central America, Chiapas, and Yucatan*, have their chief Mexican monuments at Palenque, in the State of Chiapas, and throughout the peninsula of Yucatan. The ruins of Chichen Itza, where the most extensive restoration program of monuments is at present being carried out, are probably the ones most visited by travelers and best known to the general public. And the excavations carried on in recent years by the Mexican Government at San Juan Teotihuacan, a little less than 30 miles from the national capital, give to a greater number of travelers and tourists a comprehension, ever clearer as the work progresses and additional buildings are uncovered and restored, of some external aspects of Aztec civilization.

The Zapotec culture, whose chief monuments are to be found in the State of Oaxaca, has for some time, as Señor Caso has pointed out, been acknowledged as especially important in any study of the interrelationship between the other two great civilizations. But in spite of



From drawing by Mariano Tirado Osorio, in "Las Estelas Zapotecas", by Alfonso Caso

# TOPOGRAPHIC PLAN OF THE MAIN PLAZA, MONTE ALBAN, OAXACA

Reproduced from a plan drawn under the direction of the Bureau of Archaeology, Department of Public Education, Mexico. The large irregular area at the right indicates the great platform or terrace at the north of the plaza. The recently excavated tomb No. 7 is located a short distance down the mountain slope along the road to Oaxaca, which is indicated by the line leading to the lower right corner of map.



its importance as a connecting link, and although the ruins of Mitla were explored during the early years of the 19th century by Dr. Luis Martín and Colonel de Laguna and visited by Humboldt, Dupaix, and, a little later, by Muhlenpfordt, the monuments of the Zapotec culture and that of their neighbors, the Mixtecs, have received scant attention from scientists and travelers.

The two main sites for the study of the Zapotec civilization have long been recognized as Mitla and Monte Alban. Both lie in the Valley of Oaxaca. The former is about 25 miles southeast of the capital; its buildings are particularly famous for their cyclopean construction and the geometric mosaics made of stones carved before being put into place, often so neatly fitted together that no mortar was required; the designs, in horizontal panels, decorate the greater part of both inner and outer wall spaces. Monte Alban is about 7 miles southwest of Oaxaca. Its summit was artificially leveled in days already long past when the Spaniards first entered Mexico; and on the plain thus made, as well as on the adjoining slopes, were erected pyramids and pyramidal platforms grouped about a series of plazas. Yet, in spite of the obvious invitation for exploration and reconstruction offered by the hundreds of mounds there, Monte Alban has been neglected in favor of the more spectacular remains at Chichen Itza and the more accessible ones at Teotihuacan.

Oaxaca has long been out of the main current of Mexican life; mountains, wide dusty plains, and steaming jungles kept the region isolated until nearly the end of the nineteenth century, when railroad connection with Mexico City, via Puebla, broke down the barriers that nature had contrived. Even so, the prospect of the tedious 12-hour trip from Puebla to Oaxaca has daunted many travelers desirous of visiting less frequented centers, for the rare beauty of the mountains and the evidences of that high engineering skill which made it possible for the railway to penetrate such rugged fastnesses hardly beguiled the hours spent crossing the hot and often intolerably dusty plain. Now, however, there is a highway between the two capitals which enables one to travel at his leisure, independent of the railway and its inconvenient schedule. Yet for the traveler who can forget past inconveniences in the pleasure of present experiences, and above all, for one gifted with the kind of imagination capable of evoking a living past from the mutilated remains that have subsisted into the present, the experience is richly rewarding.

In the first place, Oaxaca itself is one of the most delightful places imaginable. Once there, one feels free from the bustle and bother of the world, yet not unpleasantly isolated. The friendliness of the people, the quiet beauty of the city, the treasures of historic and artistic value, all combine to weave a spell which one would not resist if he could.



Photograph by Beatrice Newhall

#### MONTE ALBAN

A view of the main plaza from the south, showing the four pyramids occupying the center, in front of the great platform or terrace.

The smiling trefoil valley of Oaxaca, some 5,000 feet above sea level, has always had a special appeal to those fortunate enough to know it. In pre-Columbian days, it was an important religious site, the center of a high culture whose place in the mosaic of indigenous Mexican cultures is still under discussion. From the early days of the Conquest—partly, no doubt, because of the rich deposits of gold, silver, and other minerals in the surrounding mountains, partly because of its great agricultural possibilities—it ranked high in the estimation of the Spaniards. The title which Charles V bestowed upon Cortés in recognition of his prowess was Marquis of the Valley of Oaxaca. On April 25, 1532, the rights and privileges of a city were granted to the town established at the foot of Monte Alban, an event commemorated with fitting ceremonies on its 400th anniversary this spring.

The city is almost under the shadow of the historic "White Mountain," with which it is connected by a fine modern road. One of the questions that continue to puzzle thoughtful investigators is how a city of the size and extent indicated by the remains on Monte Alban could have been built and have existed for any appreciable length of time without water, for none has been found on the summit. The new road is modern Mexico's method of providing it—over the smooth surface go the great trucks laden with the water necessary for carry-

ing on the routine work of reconstruction and restoration under the direction of Señor Caso and his able assistant, Señor Martín Bazán.

The modern traveler who visits Monte Alban can motor to the summit in less than half an hour from the time he leaves his hotel. He will find that, in spite of restoration work on the chief pyramid, the description written in 1897 by Dr. William H. Holmes, now Director of the National Gallery of Art, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, is still accurate:<sup>1</sup>

From the main level I ascended the central pyramid, which is the crowning feature of this part of the crest, and obtained a magnificent panorama of the mountain and the surrounding valleys and ranges. . . . The crest of Alban, one-fourth of a mile wide and extending nearly a mile to the north, lay spread out at my feet. The surface was not covered with scattered and obscure piles of ruins as I had expected, but the whole mountain had been remodeled by the hand of man until not a trace of natural contour remained. There was a vast system of level courts inclosed by successive terraces and bordered by pyramids upon pyramids. Even the sides of the mountain descended in a succession of terraces. . . .

. . . In the foreground is the great terrace . . . crowned by its two pyramids, one placed at the southeast corner and the other, the main mound, situated a little to the left of the center.

Behind this group is the central feature of the ancient city, a vast court or plaza, a level, sunken field 600 feet wide and 1,000 feet long, inclosed by terraces and pyramids and having a line of four pyramids ranged along its center. The great lines of mounds at the right and left border the abrupt margins of the mountain, and beyond is the most astonishing feature of all—a broad terrace 600 or more feet square, within which is a sunken court surrounded by numerous pyramids that rise in a culminating group at the distant right. Beyond this at the left are other groups of mounds, and still other groups occupy the spurs and subordinate crests into which the north end of the mountain is broken. At the left and farther away are two independent, rounded, mountain crests crowned by groups of mounds. At the right is the extreme west end of the Lesser Alban. . . .

The highway ends at the northeast corner of the great plaza occupying the central portion of the main summit and diagonally across from the point from which Doctor Holmes made the foregoing description. To one's right rises the "broad terrace," a pyramidal platform irregular in shape, on whose top, about 40 feet above the plaza, may be seen other pyramids of no mean dimensions.

The first large-scale reconstruction project was undertaken on this northern platform, and already the monumental stairway from the plaza has been largely cleared, and work is now being carried forward on the smaller plaza situated at the top. The stairway, which extends across only part of that face, is nearly 130 feet wide, a fact that gives some idea of the scale on which the ancient city was constructed.

<sup>1</sup> *Archeological Studies Among the Ancient Cities of Mexico: Part II, Monuments of Chiapas, Oaxaca, and the Valley of Mexico*, by William H. Holmes, Curator, Department of Anthropology, Field Columbian Museum, Publication 16. Chicago, 1897.

Although this is the first serious research carried on with the idea of reconstruction, some exploration had been done by earlier visitors, and chambers in some of the pyramids and mounds entered without, however, finding anything of compelling importance. There are a number of crudely carved slabs at a corner of one of the pyramids flanking the western side of the great plaza. They line the entrance to one of the subterranean chambers, and have been known for over a hundred years. "The Aztec Passage" this has been called, the word Aztec here being used to designate anything not purely local; the figures have also been called "The Dancers." In style, subject, and execution they are quite unlike other remains in the dis-



Courtesy of Jack Starr-Hunt

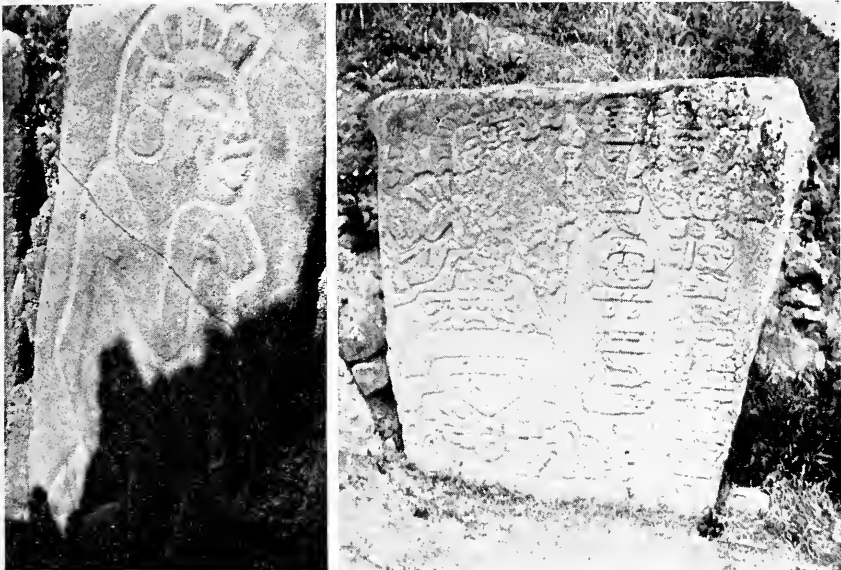
#### MONUMENTAL STAIRWAY, MONTE ALBAN

Showing work of reconstruction on the stairway, nearly 130 feet wide, leading from the main plaza to the terrace on which a minor plaza was constructed.

trict. A very interesting and much more æsthetically appealing monument is the carved slab in the southeast corner of the plaza, banked against the lower flank of the southern platform. The figure and hieroglyphs so delicately carved on its face and top suggest affinities with other cultures. Other interesting stelæ discovered by earlier explorers have been removed and are now in the National Museum in Mexico City.

Señor Caso began his work of investigation with the chambers in mounds and pyramids that had already been opened and searched by earlier explorers. Then he turned his attention to a slope just below the great pyramid, near the end of the highway, where his attention had earlier been caught by masonry outlines in the turf

on both sides of the road. These proved to be, as the visible construction indicated, tombs; and in one of them, known as Tomb No. 7, the treasure was found. At the inner entrance of the tomb were found three broken urns which had evidently been destroyed intentionally; these were mended, and formed, as has been said, the most striking exhibit in one of the rooms in the National Museum. Inside the tomb were found human remains and objects of great intrinsic and archæological value. It required over a week for Señor Caso and his associates, working night and day, to mark, collect, classify, catalogue, and make the necessary notations of location



Photographs by Beatrice Newhall

#### CARVED STELAE AT MONTE ALBAN

The stone to the left represents one of the figures known as "The Dancers," a series of carvings lining the passageway to a subterranean chamber in one of the pyramids. The visible portions of the elaborately carved stele at the right are covered with hieroglyphs.

and condition of all the objects. The contents of the tomb were then transferred for safe-keeping to a bank in Oaxaca and the news of the discovery was published.

As to the date and origin to be assigned to the individual objects, there has been some discussion; but no generally accepted conclusion on the matter can be reached until after Señor Caso has published his monograph on the subject and thus offered to the world the complete data.

On March 4, however, Señor Caso delivered a lecture in Mexico City before the Antonio Alzate National Academy of Science, in which he is reported in the press as having said that, although the

tomb is undeniably of Zapotec construction and the broken urns as well as inscriptions on the stones at the inner entrance are also clearly Zapotec, he believed the treasure to be of Mixtec workmanship. He was especially inclined to this view, he added, because of the similarity of the craftsmanship and design to examples of Aztec culture, while between Zapotec and Aztec art there was no such resemblance. On Monte Alban, Señor Caso found evidence of at least three cultures. To the first belong "The Dancers"; that civilization was followed by the Zapotec, which in turn gave way to the Mixtec. This does not necessarily imply, according to Señor Caso, that the Mixtecs were the last inhabitants of Monte Alban.

An interesting hypothesis was offered before the same academy on March 21 by Mrs. Zelia Nuttall, who occupies an enviable position among archæologists. In a paper presented to the Twenty-fourth Congress of Americanists which met in Hamburg in 1930, she had called attention to the fact that the Spaniards, with royal approval, early embarked upon a systematic sacking of all tombs throughout New Spain, not only to obtain the vast amount of precious metals and other valuables which had been interred with kings, priests, and others of high degree, but also to weaken the influence of native religious cults. In the paper read in Mexico, Mrs. Nuttall pointed out that the last Aztec chieftain, Cuautemoc, son-in-law of Moctezuma, accompanied Cortés as hostage in the march which the Conquistador undertook in 1524 from Mexico to Honduras. In his official account of the trip, in the form of a letter to Charles V, Cortés relates how, in the spring of 1525, using as a pretext the discovery of a plot on the part of some hostages, he hanged the alleged ringleader, Cuautemoc, with a companion, in the Province of Acalan, now identified as part of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec.

The symbol of Cuautemoc was, naturally enough, the eagle, for the Aztec word for eagle is *cuauhtli*. It would be only human for the followers or subjects of the dead chieftain to wish him buried with the honors due his rank, and to what safer place could his bones be removed than to a tomb already ransacked by the zealous Spaniards? The descending eagle might then be taken to signify the fallen fortunes of the unfortunate Aztec, while the occasional representation of an ascending eagle could be considered a sign of rebellion. This explanation would also account for the Aztec character already noted in the workmanship of some of the treasure, as well as for the fact that practically nothing of intrinsic value was discovered by those who have explored other graves on Monte Alban.

# THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CALENDAR REFORM

By MEREDITH N. STILES <sup>1</sup>

THE question of simplifying the calendar, which was the subject of a resolution at the Pan American Conference in Habana in 1928,<sup>2</sup> was taken up last October at an international conference of government delegates at Geneva by invitation of the League of Nations. Forty-three governments accepted, including the Governments of Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Mexico, Peru, and Uruguay. Brazil had previously filed a report on the question.

After a week of discussion the Conference made a recommendation to the churches in favor of fixing Easter on the first Sunday after the second Saturday in April, but as regards the general reform of the calendar, postponed action chiefly because of the disturbed world conditions. The delegates felt that the time was not opportune for immediate application of calendar reform.

The Conference, however, drew up a survey of the question, including a discussion of the proposed plans of simplification, and sent it to all governments for consideration. This action leaves the question open until 1935, the date for the next quadrennial meeting of the General Conference on Communications and Transit, which is the League organization that has the question in charge. Meanwhile, the League will follow up the movement and keep the governments regularly informed of its further progress.

Although the failure of the Conference to take conclusive action at this time was disappointing to some, the fact that calendar reform was for the first time officially placed before the governments for eventual decision may be taken as a substantial step forward when the progress of the movement is taken in perspective.

"For the first time," as the Conference pointed out in its survey, "public opinion as a whole has begun to be in a position to discuss seriously the advantages and drawbacks of the simplification of the Gregorian calendar. It is also the first time that governments in

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<sup>1</sup> Mr. Stiles participated in the Conference as one of the representatives of the National Committee on Calendar Simplification for the United States.

<sup>2</sup> The resolution of the Sixth International Conference of American States on the Simplification of the Calendar adopted February 20, 1928, was as follows:

"That it be recommended to the countries members of the Pan American Union that they appoint a National Committee with a view to studying the proposal relative to the simplification of the calendar, and that they make the necessary preparation in order to participate in an International Conference to determine which is the best method of reform."

general have been brought to regard the simplification of the calendar as a definite question capable of discussion between them in the course of official deliberations. The preparatory work and the discussions in the Conference, to which the governments will doubtless devote attention, will provide the competent government departments with the material necessary for a considered decision."

As regards recommending a particular plan of calendar reform from among those submitted by the Preparatory Committee, which had met in June, the delegates deferred making a definite choice. Various of the delegates had been instructed not to commit their governments at this time, and were, therefore, obliged to maintain an officially neutral attitude. The discussion as to the best plan to adopt was quite free, however, and developed a decided sentiment that if the calendar were to be reformed at all, it should be a thorough-going reform and correct all of the calendar's defects. The consensus was decidedly in favor of adopting a perpetual calendar—that is, a calendar fixing the week days to unchanging dates—but the feeling was that, owing to certain religious opposition to such a calendar, it would be difficult if not impossible to introduce it in some countries without a greater demand for it than existed at present. The religious opposition referred to was that of leaders of Jewish religious bodies, also a Christian sect known as Seventh Day Adventists, whose representatives appeared at the Conference and made pleas for a rejection of a perpetual calendar. They said their people were unable to accept the annual one day's interruption of the seventh day sequence of their Saturday Sabbath, such as a perpetual calendar would involve, and that as a consequence the adoption of such a calendar would be injurious to their religions. No opposition was manifested by any other religious body.

From the economic and social point of view, discussion of the merits of the two plans for a perpetual calendar, the one limited to the equalization of the quarters of the year, the other dividing the year into 13 equal months of 28 days each, developed a larger weight of opinion in favor of the 13-month division as preferable to the limited reform, which fails to remedy the defect of fractional weeks.

In this connection, much consideration was given to the present use of the 13-period auxiliary calendar among business concerns. This was emphasized in the survey which the Conference submitted to Governments. Attention was called to the possibility that the 13-period business calendar might be officially recognized by Governments as an auxiliary calendar, and that eventually its increasing use among commercial and industrial organizations and its employment by public authorities would lead the public to a wider recognition of the advantages of simplifying the calendar.



# THE MEXICAN BALLET-SYMPHONY

## "H. P."

By HARRY L. HEWES

THE most ironic and whimsical commentary on the contrast and conflicts of life on the North American Continent ever produced on the lyric stage was seen in the Metropolitan Opera House in Philadelphia on March 31, 1932, when the widely publicized Mexican symphony *H. P.* was presented in its world première by the corps de ballet of the Philadelphia Grand Opera Company. The audience which packed the great edifice to the doors was one of the most distinguished to gather in Philadelphia in recent years.

The general idea of the work was conceived by Carlos Chávez in 1926, and worked out with Diego Rivera in its present form. The work was finished in 1927 and reorchestrated for a large symphony orchestra in 1931.

The music, often humorous, occasionally brutal, and for fleeting moments directly in the romanticist vein, was written by Señor Chávez. Designs for décor and costumes were by Señor Rivera, Mexican painter, who has been described as the "world's foremost graphic artist." The whole impact of Señor Rivera's ironic wit was revealed in both settings and costumes.

Leopold Stokowski was at the conductor's desk; before him in the pit was the entire orchestral personnel of 114 men. A desk telephone linked him with the electricians who operated the many-octaved light batteries back stage.

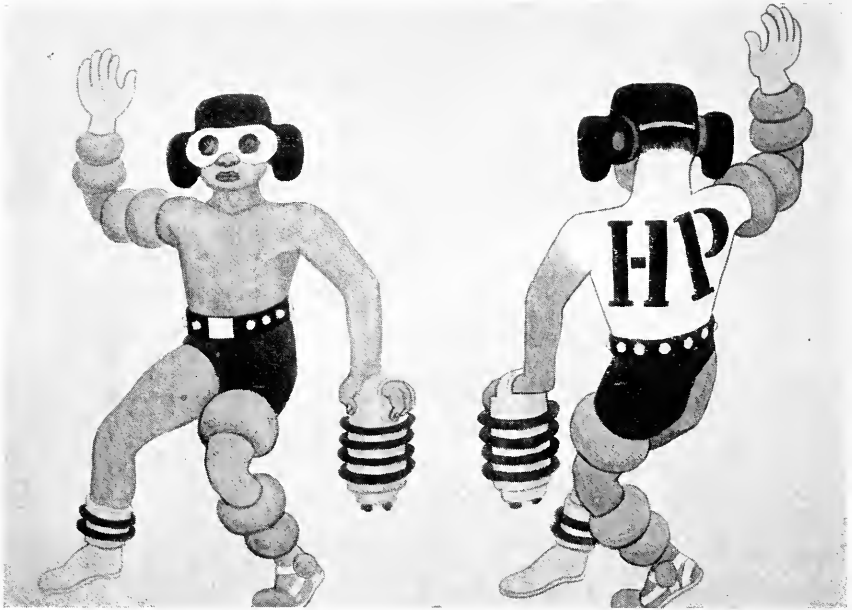
It is of interest to note here that Mr. Stokowski returned in February from his second visit to Mexico to observe the ritualistic and symbolic dances of the Indians, the roots of which are lost in dim and unrecorded centuries; he brought back light and sound records for further study. With Señor Chávez he had lived in an isolated Indian village on the far southwestern coast.

Both Señor Chávez and Señor Rivera went to Philadelphia early in March and assisted in staging rehearsals. The choreography was directed by Catherine Littlefield, première danseuse of the opera company.

An immensely significant plastic imagination is revealed in the ballet, reaching brilliantly into the world of satirical fantasy. Its action is thus described in the program:

H. P.

The Ballet *H. P.* symbolizes the relations of the Northern Regions with those of the Tropics, and shows their interrelationship. The Tropics produce things



Courtesy of Harry Hewes

"H. P."

Diego Rivera's sketch of the leading character in "H. P.," the Mexican symphony-ballet, by Carlos Chávez and Diego Rivera, which had its world première in Philadelphia, March 31, 1932.

in their primitive state—there are Pineapples, Cocoanuts, Bananas, and Fish. The North produces the machinery with which to manufacture from the products of the Tropics, the necessary material things of life. The Ballet depicts the fact that the North needs the Tropics, just as the Tropics need the machinery of the North, and attempts to harmonize the result.

### 1. *Dance of the Man, H. P.*

The Man is in the plenitude of his intellect, sentiments, and physical power. He expresses in the dance, the energy contained in himself and discovers at his every step, the unknown forces surrounding him, which he seeks to subdue.

### 2. *A Cargo Ship at Sea Symbolizing the Commerce between the North and the South.*

Here are interpreted the relations between diverse men and places of different resources. A gymnastic dance of Sailors denotes vigor, activity, and physical force. Mermaids of the tropical seas, followed by their train of fish, come over the side of the ship, expressing nonchalance, sensuality, and seduction. All are swept by the frantic pleasure of the rhythm, syncopation, and dance.

### 3. *A Ship in the Tropics.*

Warmth and light. Plentiness to the earth and Fruits in abundance. Peace, quietness, and exotic coloring. A slight breeze causes the fruit trees to sway. The Fruits gradually grow more animated as the natives pass by, selling their wares. The Sailors from the ship arrive to take their cargo of fruit. The scene becomes more and more alive, as the final dance depicts the loading of the Fruits upon the vessel.

4. *The City of Industry.*

The North, with its skyscrapers, machinery, and mechanical activity. Man collects the raw materials of the earth; gold, silver, cotton, tobacco, and the machinery which enables him to dominate his surroundings, and satisfy his desire and needs. The world at work, dominated by the stock ticker, denoting increasing wealth. Mankind's struggle for its welfare revolts against mere material values, reverting to an insatiable desire for the natural products of the earth. Men and raw materials dance and blend into the rhythm of H. P., as the Ballet ends.

The score is as full of contrasts as life on the North American Continent. Señor Chávez has utilized as themes the Anglo-Saxon chanteys of the sea and the Indian-Spanish *huapango*, *danza*, *corrido*, and *zandunga*. The final dance is a sparkling composition holding together the suggestion of the various themes by a clear, strong, and decisive harmonic treatment. "Once again a musician has issued a formidable challenge to a dance composer," remarked *The New York Times*; "Mr. Chávez has filled his music to the brim with substance." And of the ballet the *New York Herald Tribune* said: "His [Señor Rivera's] fishes, mermaids, coconuts, sugarcane, bananas, cigars, and gasoline pumps provide something quite new and actually distinctive in ballet investiture and retain the qualities of sunlight and intense simplicity which always have been the secret of his success."



Courtesy of Harry Hewes

"THE BANANA"

One of the dancers in "H. P." as pictured by Diego Rivera.

Señor Rivera, who endeared himself to the people of Philadelphia because of his essentially humble devotion to his significant art and his personal courtesy and kindness, saw in the performance of *H. P.* by the Philadelphia Opera Company the opening of another door to a more sympathetic cultural understanding between the United States and the Republics to the South. "There is undoubtedly a common destiny for all the men of America," he remarked. "The time will come when they will be held by a common bond in the achievements of art, beauty, and the mind." Señor Rivera also said: "*H. P.* is not an exposition of ideas of propaganda for or against this or that point of view, but the unfolding of plastic and musical incidents whose theme

is in accord with the rhythm of our aspirations, interests, and the necessities of our social existence. In this manner, the production has been created and developed around its central theme with entire abandon. The need for unity makes it necessary that the dance, painting, and form of the scenery definitely express the music of *H. P.* in plastic form. The music of *H. P.*, however, can exist successfully without dance or scenery. It can be played in the midst of any multitude and that is as it should be, as it is made up of the music of our people."



Courtesy of Harry Hewes

"SUGAR CANE"

Design by Diego Rivera for a dancer's costume  
in "*H. P.*"

"*H. P.* is a symphony of music that is in the very air and atmosphere of our continent," said Señor Chávez in his program note, "music that is heard on all sides, a sort of review of the epoch in which we live. It contains expressions that are natural to our daily life, without attempting to select the 'artistic.' Latin American and Anglo-American culture are giving this continent its own personality and savor. Groups of people of diverse characters and regions, North and South, mingle constantly in the grand ferment of this, our American Continent. That which the present moment has of strife and creativeness, that which in reality lives in the very air which we breathe, is what is contained in *H. P.* Indian tunes and dances will be found in my music not as

a constructive base, but because all the conditions of their composition, form, sonority, etc., by nature coincide with those in my own mind, inasmuch as both are products of the same origin."

Mrs. William C. Hammer, the only woman to-day to fill the post of general director of a major opera company, had general supervision over the ballet production. Having searched Europe for three years for new operas and worthy ballets, she is turning her attention to Latin America this year, and entertains plans for visiting the great opera houses of the South American cities during the coming summer, when the winter season of the Southern Hemisphere is at its height.

# THE JUNIOR RED CROSS IN PERU

By DR. ANTONIO AYLLÓN PASTOR

*Founder and Director of the Peruvian Junior Red Cross; Head of the Public Health Department, Boys' Vocational School, Lima*

WHEN the Sixth Pan American Scientific Congress met in Lima, the capital of Peru, the organization of a Junior Red Cross in that country was suggested as a means of educating children in health, civic duties, and world peace. Although the idea was first broached by the delegation of the United States, chief credit for securing favorable action by the Peruvian Government belongs to Dr. Pedro Lautaro Ferrer, the delegate and enthusiastic Director General of the Chilean Junior Red Cross.

Every year we teachers of the Vocational School for Boys in Lima are accustomed to assemble at the call of the principal during the last days of vacation for an interchange of ideas with regard to the innovations which should be made during the next school year. In 1931 we agreed to change our methods of teaching to those of the so-called "new" schools, and the daily programs were therefore arranged with special interest. As teacher of hygiene, I could not fail to be particularly interested in this transformation, and it was then that the idea of making the Junior Red Cross an effective factor in our school came to the fore. Although for the six years during which I had held my present position I had tried to make my teaching as practical as possible, I had never obtained the surprising results which I have achieved in the course of a few months, not only with regard to health, but also with regard to the rest of the Junior Red Cross plan. Furthermore, I am sure that our work will eventually strengthen the adult Red Cross.

It took two months of work to start the first unit in proper form. It was not only necessary to make certain preparations before we could embark on our task, but also to train our staff. It was therefore the first of June, 1931, when the work was begun, with sections for first aid, hygiene, correspondence, and the medical attention which the author himself gives. At that time we did not imagine that our work was going to grow at an almost phenomenal rate. It was the interest of the pupils which caused our activities to be extended and new sections to be created; therefore we feel that notwithstanding such difficulties as are encountered at the outset of any enterprise, much has really been accomplished. At present there are eight sections: (1) First aid, (2) medical, (3) hygiene and public health, (4) school



#### THE JUNIOR RED CROSS OF PERU

Group of members of the first unit of the Peruvian Junior Red Cross, with Dr. Antonio Ayllón, its director, and Señor Cecilio Garrido, principal of the Boys' Vocational School, Lima.



#### HYGIENE SECTION OF THE JUNIOR RED CROSS

Pupils of the Boys' Vocational School must pass inspection each morning for cleanliness.

supplies, (5) library, (6) barber shop, (7) correspondence, and (8) publicity.

The first-aid section gives assistance to those meeting with accidents. Boys belonging to it are trained so that they can pass a test and become cadets of the Junior Red Cross. The section is equipped for service not only in individual cases but also in accidents involving several persons.

The medical division gives a thorough physical examination to all students registered in the school. Physical measurements, other data, and the illnesses which a student has during his school life are noted on his record, and appropriate suggestions are made to parents. Later it is hoped to supplement the physical examination with mental tests and an outline for suitable corrective exercises and sports. Medical attention is also given to students needing it, the medicines prescribed being obtained from pharmacies which give a 10 to 20 per cent discount. Teachers are also advised as to ways in which they can cooperate. The Junior Red Cross cadets assist wherever possible, thus acquiring valuable training and lightening the work. They know how to take all the data not needing technical knowledge, such as weight, height, and chest measurement. They have also been taught to make home visits for the purpose of securing information as to housing conditions, standards of living, and family environment.

The morning inspection of all pupils as to their personal hygiene is in charge of the members of the hygiene and health section. This does not end their work, for they are expected to secure observation of the rules of hygiene from any boys who have been remiss. For this purpose necessary supplies, such as soap, toothbrushes, and wash cloths, are kept in the Bureau of Supplies. This bureau likewise sells such articles to students at a lower price than that charged by the stores, letting them purchase on the installment plan. The bureau is largely patronized and is run by a cadet who acts as manager and is assisted by various other students.

The students themselves have full responsibility in this section and have obtained excellent results, so that now practically every boy arrives at school spick and span. We have therefore achieved a practical teaching of hygiene which surely will not be forgotten by our pupils for the rest of their lives.

This same section has established the hygiene merit stripe, which is very much coveted. It is awarded weekly to the students of the class which has best observed the rules of hygiene. Charts giving hygiene statistics have been an excellent stimulus.

A health week was recently observed. During this period teachers of all the courses throughout the school cooperated by giving talks on the aspects of their work which had to do with health. Now we are organizing a series of lectures for teachers, students, and especially

for parents, so that the work in which we are engaged may be appreciated in the homes and produce still more beneficial results.

Supplies which the students need are purchased by a special section and sold at a reduction below the usual retail price. The students are very much interested in their store, since it is of practical benefit to them. It is operated by a group of cadets from the commercial section, one of whom is the manager and bookkeeper. This is an activity which we think is peculiarly our own, for we have not heard of it in other Junior Red Cross units. The profit made here is used for free services.



FIRST-AID INSTRUCTION

Members of the first-aid section of the Peruvian Junior Red Cross are trained to give assistance in case of accidents.

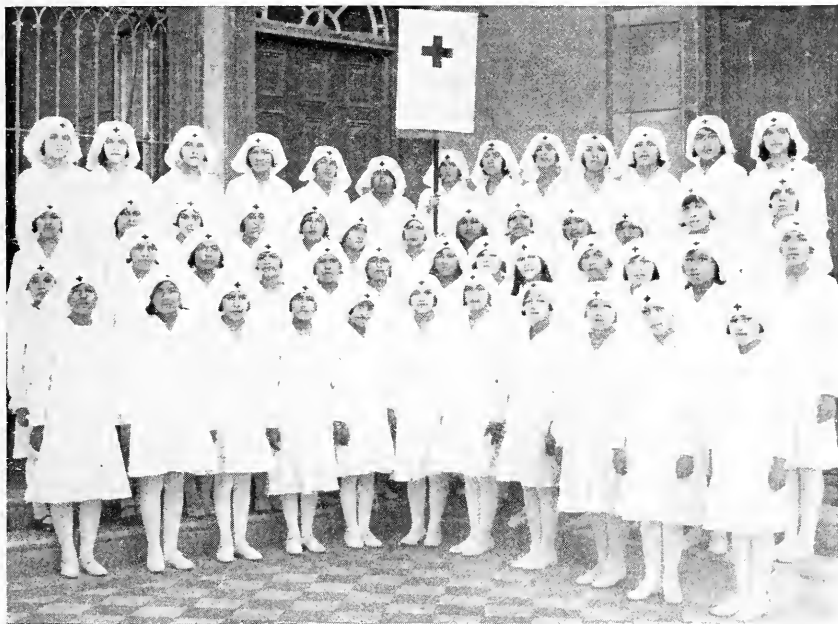
In the library section are kept the books and reviews on Junior Red Cross work, health, and other subjects, all of which offer means for a wider acquaintanceship on the part of the students with the organization and purpose of the society to which they belong.

A professional barber is at the service of all the boys, his charges being the same as those of an ordinary barber shop. The best sanitary conditions are maintained under the supervision of one of the students.

The correspondence section is one of the most important divisions of the Junior Red Cross, for it provides a means for the interchange of correspondence with other parts of our own country and with foreign nations, thus helping to strengthen the bonds of friendship and solidarity between students and leading to an accurate knowledge



of geography, national customs, and many details which might never be thought of or found in books. We have succeeded in establishing communication with all the countries which have a Junior Red Cross, informing them of our activities, and we have received numerous replies which have given much pleasure to our boys. The latter are now eager to become better acquainted with the countries of their fellow members, many of whom live in the most distant corners of the earth and speak languages which we sometimes have difficulty in translating. However, by searching out compatriots of our



THE PERUVIAN JUNIOR RED CROSS

A girls' unit organized in the Centro Escolar República del Paraguay, with Señorita Aráoz as director.

foreign correspondents, we have learned what is said in the attractive magazines which they send us.

We have sent an album of photographs of the school and the Junior Red Cross and a message to the Chilean Junior Red Cross, improving the opportunity offered by the visit to Chile of students of the Commercial Institute of Peru. The Junior Red Cross in our neighboring Republic responded to our gift by sending pleasing insignia of which our members are very proud.

The publicity section is also a very important division. Thanks to the work of the boys belonging to it, we have been able to exhibit in the show cases of the principal shops posters which have been good advertisements for our organization. Furthermore, at the exhibition

of school work held on July 28, our national holiday, we showed collections of pictures explaining how to fight certain diseases.

The work which proved so beneficial to the students and so effective an aid to the teachers in the school which started it could not remain unknown. Therefore we have been summoned by the school authorities to cooperate in organizing new units of the Junior Red Cross in all Government schools; this is the task in which we are now engaged. Twelve more school units have been started and are as flourishing as the one just described. Although much remains to be done, our progress so far has greatly encouraged us, and we look forward with faith and hope to the future of the Junior Red Cross in Peru.

Our ardent wish is that the world of youth may soon count upon one more instrument for the promotion of friendship, mutual assistance, and universal peace.





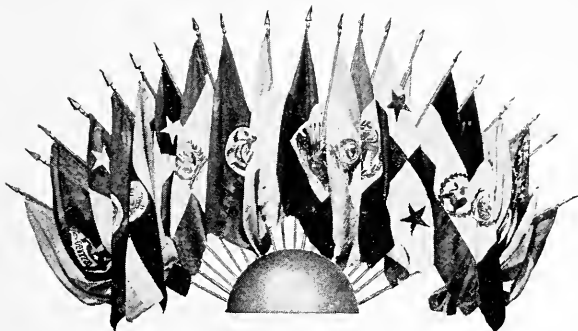
#### THE UNITED STATES-PANAMA MIXED CLAIMS COMMISSION

The inaugural session of the United States-Panama Mixed Claims Commission was held at the Pan American Union, April 1, 1932. In the photograph, from left to right, appear Mr. E. Russell Lutz, Assistant Agent of the United States; Mr. Bert L. Hunt, Agent of the United States; Mr. Benedict M. English, Secretary for the United States; Hon. Joseph R. Baker, United States Commissioner; His Excellency Dr. Miguel Cruchaga Yvancura, Ambassador of Chile in the United States and Neutral Presiding Commissioner; His Excellency Dr. Horacio Alfaro, Minister of Panama in the United States and Commissioner of Panama, and Señor Don Juan B. Chevallier, Acting Secretary for Panama.



#### CEREMONY AT STATUE OF GENERAL SAN MARTÍN, IN WASHINGTON

Under the auspices of the Sons of the American Revolution, an interesting ceremony took place, May 17, 1932, at the statue of General José de San Martín, the Argentine national hero and one of the great figures in Latin American history. Brief addresses were made by His Excellency Dr. Felipe A. Espl, the Ambassador of Argentina, Justice Josiah A. Van Orsdel, President General of the National Society of Sons of the American Revolution, then in annual session in Washington, and Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union. Upper: The monument, in Judiciary Park, was the gift of the Argentine Republic to the people of the United States. Lower: Group of participants in the ceremony, with wreaths presented by the Ambassador of Argentina; the National Society of Sons of the American Revolution; District of Columbia Chapter, Daughters of the American Revolution; Department of the Potomac, Grand Army of the Republic; District of Columbia Commandery, Military Order of the Loyal Legion; Military Order of the World War; the Pan American Society of the United States; and the Pan American Union.



## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### THE GOVERNING BOARD

At the meeting of the Governing Board on April 6, 1932, the Minister of Guatemala submitted to the consideration of the Board the following draft resolution:

Whereas this year will mark the hundredth anniversary of the publication of *The Principles of the Law of Nations*, by Don Andrés Bello, publicist, jurist, and man of letters; and

Whereas the work of Bello, published in 1832, was the first book on international law published in Spanish in America, and exerted a profound influence on the development of juridical science and on the relations between the nations of America; and

Whereas, in addition to the services rendered to the cause of the emancipation of the Spanish colonies, the labors of Bello as a legislator, humanist, educator, thinker, and jurist contributed to the development of American culture: Therefore the Governing Board of the Pan American Union

Resolves, 1. To associate itself with the commemoration of the centenary of the publication of *The Principles of the Law of Nations*.

2. To publish in the Bulletin of the Pan American Union studies on the work of Bello and on his influence on the intellectual life of America.

3. To suggest to the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace that it include *The Principles of the Law of Nations* in the Series of Classics on International Law edited by that institution.

4. To suggest that the Seventh International Conference of American States pay tribute to the memory of Don Andrés Bello.

The Ambassador of Chile then said:

It is with deep emotion that I join in the tribute which the resolution presented by the Minister of Guatemala would pay to the memory of that illustrious name, Andrés Bello. A star of the first magnitude, Andrés Bello gave a light that was his own. Writer, philosopher, and educator, loved and honored as a man and as a citizen of Pan America; humanist, with an intellectual endowment surpassed by no contemporary; writer and poet, he left poetry that to-day is found on the lips of Venezuelans, of Chileans, and of all the youth of South America; jurist, he wrote the Civil Code of Chile; student of foreign literatures, he wrote on the *Romancero del Cid*, and gave to it an interpretation that has claimed the attention of critics. Bello has left an indelible impression on the intellectual life of

Hispanic America, and for this reason his name is blessed, is glorified, not only in Chile, which was his home for more than 40 years, but also in Venezuela, where he was born in the year 1729, and in almost all the countries of America where his works are read and esteemed. The publication of his book on international law a century ago greatly advanced the study of law. Wheaton, a contemporary writer on international law, refers constantly with great respect and admiration to Bello in his work. No international debate of any importance occurs where the treatise by Bello is not referred to with the greatest consideration and esteem. The tribute proposed by the Minister of Guatemala is most appropriate and just, and I join in it with the utmost enthusiasm.

The Minister of Venezuela said:

The resolution formulated by the Minister of Guatemala finds its inspiration in justice and in truth, for in reality, in the dignity and simplicity of his life, in his talents and profound knowledge, as well as in the great services which he gave to the cause of the progress of civilization in America through his fundamental labors on civil law, international law, and philology, the figure of Bello is one of the most brilliant recorded by American history. For these reasons, I shall, with the greatest pleasure, vote in favor of the resolution.

The resolution proposed by the Minister of Guatemala was unanimously adopted by the board.

The Minister of Panama said:

I have the honor to submit to your consideration a resolution in honor of one of the beacon figures of our America. I refer to the great Ecuadorean writer, Juan Montalvo, the centenary of whose birth is near. It is not necessary for me to eulogize in this meeting the work done by Montalvo; his work is an integral part of the intellectual life of America, not only of persons of high culture, such as the members of this board, but also of those who do not enjoy this privilege. Montalvo distinguished himself, and has passed into history, as the stylist of the purist form, as the most adept master of our language. The writings of Montalvo are notable for their classicism and for their high qualities of thought. Juan Montalvo has passed into history—and I believe I do not overstate—as the highest exponent of Spanish American authorship, and Ecuador must find a high pride in the celebration of the anniversary of his birth. I submit, therefore, the following draft resolution to your consideration:

Whereas April 13, 1932, marks the hundredth anniversary of the birth of the illustrious Ecuadorean thinker and writer, Juan Montalvo; and

Whereas, by the scope of his thought, the vigor and depth, the beauty and variety of his ideas, and the perfection of his style, Montalvo exercised a profound influence on the literary and political life of Spanish America; and

Whereas the life of Montalvo, the citizen, was as noble as the work of Montalvo, the writer, and both contributed greatly to the formation of the culture and the republican consciousness of America; the Governing Board of the Pan American Union

*Resolves* to spread upon the minutes, on the occasion of this anniversary, the tribute of the Governing Board to the memory of the great Ecuadorean thinker and writer.

The Minister of Ecuador spoke as follows:

Deeply moved, I wish to express my appreciation for the words spoken by Doctor Alfaro, Minister of Panama, words inspired by his enthusiasm for the tribute offered in honor of the memory of Juan Montalvo. I am also grateful to

the Pan American Union for awakening the sound of the name of Montalvo in these surroundings. If the literary fame of Montalvo is consecrated within every sphere of life on this Continent, and if this fame justifies the tribute of the 21 Republics, a tribute paid to his glory as the truest and most perfect exponent of the Spanish language, in this building his name should with greater reason be remembered as he was also a precursor of Pan Americanism. To-day Pan Americanism possesses an elemental and everyday character in the thought of all classes of people in Hispanic America, but in the age of Montalvo this was not true. Even so, the impression made by Montalvo's thought is clearly marked, for he was able to rise above the national frontiers of our countries, and exhorted the people of his time to follow in a spirit of union the example set by the United States. He admired the great and model Republic that in this part of the Continent gave an indication of what the future held in store for the young Republics of the south.

The classic parallel of Washington and Bolívar drawn by Montalvo is not only an example of great literary beauty in our language, but has been a source of inspiration for high sentiment. In this classic parallel Montalvo traced the outline of his conception of the duality and unity of the American Continent. If Montalvo magnified his enthusiasm for Washington, it was because he saw that the fusion of the ideals of the two great liberators was the symbol of the destiny of the two American Continents. Could Montalvo witness in spirit the development of his ideal, and could he see the representatives of all the nations of America assembled in this place to find means for collective action and to speak of international peace and mutual understanding instead of persisting in the old path of isolation and distrust, his enthusiasm would be great. Not only as a man of letters, but also as a true Pan American, the name of Montalvo is heard here in a most appropriate setting. Could he be present at this session, he would applaud the tribute that has been paid to Bello, and he would feel pleased to see himself preceded and accompanied by him, who was his guide and counselor in everything. That this Governing Board honors the memory of these two great men, speaks well for the sentiment of cooperation and concord existing among the nations represented here.

The Chargé d'Affaires of Paraguay spoke as follows:

The resolution I am about to read is in honor of an eminent man, who was a loyal servant of our America. We do not consider in the present case, as in the two tributes that have preceded, an apostle of thought, but one who was a master of the natural sciences. I refer to José Celestino Mutis. Although born in Spain, Mutis dedicated all his energies and all the wealth of his scientific talents to our Continent, and his name has been incorporated into our history as one of the greatest of American sages. Mutis bequeathed to us a great number of the products of his long, many-sided, and fruitful scientific career, and it is hardly necessary for me to mention them.

Such are the reasons that have induced me to present to the consideration of this Governing Board the following draft resolution:

On this date, the bicentenary of the birth of that illustrious naturalist, José Celestino Mutis, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union remembers the great services which he gave to American science, and renders a tribute of admiration to his memory.

The Minister of Colombia spoke in the following manner:

Mutis was European. A Spaniard, of the city of Cadiz, he gave to Colombia, ancient Vice Royalty of New Granada, the best part of his life and of his work. He arrived in Colombia when he was 29 years of age; there he established him-

self, and there he died half a century later. It is for this reason that I should like to take a few moments of the time of the Governing Board to add, be it but a few brief words, to what so generously the *Chargé d'Affaires* of Paraguay, Doctor Ynsfran, has expressed. I extend to him my sincere appreciation and thanks.

However, before I begin, permit me to adhere with enthusiasm in the name of my country and in my own to the two motions that have just been adopted in honor of Bello and Montalvo.

Montalvo is an illustrious figure wherever Spanish is spoken; his was a daring energy, a life dedicated with brilliance and valor to the democratic cause in America. The Ecuadorean nationality of Montalvo is a close bond which we in Colombia have with Ecuador; he is our spiritual brother.

With reference to Bello, it would be a presumption on my part to attempt to add laudatory remarks to those that have just now so eloquently been expressed. I wish merely to say that Bello has intimate ties with Colombia, in the first place because in the beginning of his career he was a companion of Bolívar, with whom he labored in a transcendental mission for independence, and anything that touches upon the life of Bolívar is of the utmost interest to the Colombians, for we have the worship of Bolívar, and respect and veneration for the Liberator is an intimate and abiding part of our lives.

Another tie is that of philology. We have always paid special attention to these studies, and those of Bello have been followed, analyzed, and complemented in Colombia, principally by Rufino J. Cuervo and Caro y Suárez. In his activity as a philologist, as an internationalist, and as a jurist, Bello is a teacher of the Colombians. Our Civil Code is an inheritance from that of Chile, and the Civil Code of Chile was written by Bello, who based his code on that of Napoleon. Our jurists have satisfied their thirst at the sapient teachings of Bello, and Bello is thus present in the multiple phases of the current of our intellectual life. It is for this reason that I wish to manifest our cordial and enthusiastic participation in the tribute that is paid to Bello.

Mutis was a sage; his knowledge, in variety and in profundity, was enormous. His intellectual curiosity and his capacity for assimilation were truly extraordinary. A great part of what the human mind had accumulated in that age when knowledge and culture were difficult of access, had in Mutis an authorized exponent. Philologist, mathematician, physicist, astronomer, naturalist, all these Mutis was. At the time he arrived in Colombia, he had already produced studies of a high order in his native country, but he continued studying without rest practically to the hour of his death. Even more than the title of sage, to him, by natural right, belongs the title of student.

There were two types of wise men—the one who believes he has reached the summit, and that for that reason may rest and await the end without further exertion, and the one who never believes he has arrived, and continues studying without let and without rest, and each day lights new torches in the chambers of his mind, and extends more and more over nature the antennæ of his investigations. Of this last type was Mutis.

His eminent labors in Colombia were three in number: His professorship at the Colegio del Rosario, the creation of the Observatorio Astronómico, and La Expedición Botánica.

El Colegio del Rosario is the alma mater of Colombia. Asked to indicate some part of our land as the citadel of our country, as the sacred Ark of our history, the heart and soul of Colombia, we would point to the hundred square yards upon which rests the historic Colegio del Rosario.

In it were educated in colonial times and since the establishment of the Republic many of the most eminent of our national figures. From it issued men of valor when the struggle for independence began, many of whom became heroes



and martyrs of the Republic. From it have come many of our professional men who have enhanced the prestige of the country; of eminent citizens who have maintained with honor the best traditions of the nation.

It is here that Mutis gave his lectures on mathematics, on astronomy, on the natural sciences, and many of the founders of the Republic were his students.

Mutis was responsible for the construction in 1802 of the Observatorio Astronómico de Bogotá, the first of its kind in America. He organized and directed it for some time, and it exists to-day as a tradition and as a lasting center of culture.

But the culminating work performed by Mutis was the Expedición Botánica, inspired and directed by him, created by the Government of Spain on request of the Archbishop Viceroy Caballero y Góngora, and to which that extraordinary man, Mutis, devoted 25 years of effort and all the talent and skill of a long and most exemplary life of labor and study.

I shall not attempt in the short time at my disposal to give you a summary of that labor of scientific investigations, of perseverance, of patience, and method. It is enough to say that when the Spanish invasion of Bogota in 1816 collected and transported to Spain what remained of the herbarium planted by Mutis, 104 great cases were necessary for its transportation, and in the Botanical Garden in Madrid, that herbarium has been and is the object of study and admiration of the naturalists of Europe.

In conclusion, in order to give you a clear idea of the vastness and variety of the work of Mutis, I quote the words that Linnæus, who was his friend, dedicated to him: "Immortal man, whose work will live forever," and Humboldt, who visited at Bogota in 1801 before his trip to Ecuador and Peru, and who became acquainted with the labors accomplished by the Expedición Botánica, and who knew at close hand and admired his scientific abilities, said of Mutis: "He is the illustrious Patriarch of the botanists of the New World."

At its session held on May 4, 1932, the Governing Board approved the report of a special committee on the procedure to be followed in the deposit of instruments of ratification of treaties and conventions, of which the Pan American Union is the depository. Under the terms of the report, the Pan American Union shall receive the instruments of ratification, including the reservations; communicate the deposit of ratifications to the other Signatory States, and in the case of reservations, inform the other Signatories thereof; receive the replies of the other Signatory States as to whether or not they accept the reservations; and inform all the Signatories to the treaty whether or not the reservations have been accepted.

The action of the Governing Board in postponing the date of the Seventh International Conference of American States from December, 1932, to December, 1933, is reported on pages 388-389 of this issue.

#### THE COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

*National Library of Bolivia.*—A member of the library staff recently had the pleasure of visiting the National Library of Bolivia, located in Sucre, of which Dr. Mariano Rosquellas is librarian. The library, composed of about 22,000 volumes, largely rare documents, has been classified according to the decimal system.

*Accessions.*—Among the titles added to the library's shelves since the Library Notes last appeared in the BULLETIN is a *Catálogo de la Biblioteca "América,"* edited by José M. de Bustamante y Urrutia, Librarian of the University of Santiago, Chile, and published as part of the University's *Anales* by the press of "El Eco," Santiago. The catalogue is in two volumes, the first by authors of books of more than 200 pages, and the second by authors of pamphlets.

*Reading lists.*—The Union has for distribution, as long as the supply lasts, reading lists designed for the use of students, teachers, members of women's clubs, and librarians in the United States. The lists include: An annotated bibliography of Latin American literature; a bibliography on the arts in Latin America; and one on Pan American topics, comprising brief sections on the land and the people; how the American nations communicate with each other; some great men; cultural life; the student movement; inter-American relations and Pan Americanism; juvenile books on Latin America; and education in Latin America.

The book *La Instrucción en Caracas* by Caracciolo Parra, listed in full below, is worthy of special mention. Not only is this a review of early educational efforts in Venezuela but it is also a methodical and sympathetic study of the intellectual atmosphere of that country in its colonial days.

Books of special note are as follows:

*La política exterior de la República Argentina.* Estudios editados por la Facultad de Derecho y Ciencias Sociales de la Universidad de Buenos Aires, XIX. Buenos Aires, Facultad de Derecho y Ciencias Sociales, 1931. 445 p. 8°.

*Los Estados Unidos.* Por Pedro F. Vicuña. Bosquejo histórico. Prólogo de Agustín Edwards. Paris, Editorial "Le Livre Libre," 1932. xxxii, 357 p. 8°.

*La instrucción en Caracas, 1567-1725.* Discurso de incorporación y estudio histórico anexo presentados a la Academia Nacional de la Historia. Por Caracciolo Parra. Caracas, Parra León Hermanos, Editores, 1932. xii, 310, 99 p. 8°.

*Catálogo alfabético de nombres vulgares y científicos de plantas que existen en México.* Publicado por la Dirección de Estudios Biológicos, dependiente de la Secretaría de Agricultura y Fomento. México, Imprenta de la Dirección de Estudios Biológicos, 1923. 670 p. 8°.

*Problemas económicos y fiscales.* Algunas exposiciones parlamentarias. Anexos a la Memoria del Ministro de Hacienda y Crédito Público, 1931. Bogotá, Imprenta Nacional, 1931. 182 p. 8°.

*Historia de la canción mexicana.* Canciones, cantares y corridos coleccionados y comentados por Higinio Vázquez Santana. Tomo 3. México, Talleres Gráficos de la Nación, 1931. 255 p. 8°.

*Las estelas zapotecas.* Por Alfonso Caso. Monografías del Museo nacional de arqueología, historia y etnografía. México, Talleres Gráficos de la Nación, 1928. 204 p. illus. 8°.

*Educación intelectual y física entre los Nahuas y Mayas precolombinos.* Por el Lic. Ramón Mena y Juan Jenkins Arriaga. México [Departamento de Arqueología del Museo Nacional], 1930. 75 p. col. pls. illus. 4°.

*Carlos Walker Martinez.* Una juventud modelo. Homenaje de Francisco Rivas Walker, Jaime Rivas Walker. Santiago, Imprenta Universo [1930]. 246 p. 12°.

*La provincia de Aisén:* Historia, formación y desarrollo de las regiones que forman la provincia actual de Aisén. Por Fernando Sepúlveda Veloso. Santiago, Talleres Gráficos "Rávill," 1931. 167 p. illus. 12°.

*Bolívar.* Por Cornelio Hispano. San José de Costa Rica, J. García Monge, 1921. 75 p. 12°.

*The early constitutions of Chile, 1810-1914.* An introduction to the influence of United States political ideas on the autonomistic activities of Chile. With a general review of historical events leading to the independence of Spanish colonies in America. Thesis for the master's degree submitted to the School of Foreign Service, Georgetown University. By B. Cohen, May, 1927. 104, 19, xi p. 4°.

New magazines and magazines received for the first time are as follows:

*Costa Rica Gráfica.* Órgano de publicidad de la Junta Nacional de Turismo e Inmigración, patrocinado por la Asociación Nacional de Productores de Café, San José, Costa Rica. Edición mensual en español e inglés. Vol. 1, No. 1, febrero, 1932. 24 p. illus. 8¼ x 11¼ inches.

*The Pan American Dispatch.* Financed and published by Latin American Associated Newspaper Editors. Little Building, Boston, Mass. Vol. 1, No. 1, April, 1932. (M.) 8 p. illus. 13 x 19½ inches.

*La Enfermera Nacional.* Órgano Oficial de la Asociación Nacional de Enfermeras, Habana, Cuba. Revista mensual científica y literaria. Año 3, Núm. 9 y 10, enero-febrero, 1932. 50 p. illus. 7 x 10 inches.

*Revista de la Tuberculosis del Uruguay.* Órgano Oficial de la Sociedad de Tisiología—Órgano del Servicio de Lucha y Preservación Antituberculosa. Dirección y administración Av. 18 de Julio 1746, Montevideo. (Bi-mo.) Tomo 1, No. 6, diciembre, 1931. 184 p. illus. 6½ x 9 inches.

*Boletín de la Propiedad Industrial y Comercial.* Ministerio de Fomento, Caracas, Venezuela. (M.) Año 1, No. 1, 1° de noviembre de 1931. 57 p. illus. 6¼ x 9¼ inches.

*Jardín de Niños.* Órgano de la Sociedad de Educadores para Estudio y Protección del Niño, publicado por la Cooperativa de Educadoras. Domicilio Oficial, Jardín de Niños "Spencer," 7ª Guerrero 18, México, D. F. (M.) Tomo 1, No. 4, agosto, 1931. 16 p. illus. 7½ x 10 inches.

*Miscelánea.* Revista mensual. Dirección General, Apartado 337, Quito, Ecuador. Año 2, No. 9. Enero, 1932. 39 p. illus. 7 x 10¾ inches.

*Boletín del Patronato Nacional de la Infancia.* San José, Costa Rica. (Bi-mo.) Año 1, No. 1, 1° de octubre de 1930. 27 p. illus. 6¾ x 10 inches.

*Boletín de Estadística.* Órgano de la Federación Nacional de Cafeteros, Bogotá, Colombia. (M.) Vol. 1. No. 1, marzo, 1932. 24 p. 6¾ x 9¼ inches. Supersedes la *Revista Cafetera de Colombia*, Órgano de la Federación Nacional de Cafeteros.

*Cypactly.* Revista quincenal de variedades—tribuna del pensamiento libre de América, San Salvador. Número 11, febrero 10, 1932. 28 p. illus. 9½ x 12¼ inches.

*Gaceta Postal.* Órgano oficial del Servicio de Correos, Guatemala. Año 1, No. 1, marzo 15, 1932. 26 p. illus. 7¾ x 10¾ inches.

*Inter-America* (Trade and Tourist Journal), San Francisco, California. (M.) (English and Spanish.) Vol. 1, No. 1, April, 1932. 31 p. illus. 9 x 12 inches.

## PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

### TREATIES AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

An agreement has been reached between the Governments of Colombia and Panama, providing for the organization of a mixed commission which is to mark the boundary between the two countries. The Colombia-Panama boundary line was fixed by a treaty signed at Bogota on August 20, 1924.

A decree issued by the Provisional Government of Brazil on January 25, 1932, proclaims the radiotelegraphic convention signed at Lima on December 31, 1928, by representatives of Brazil and Peru. The ratifications of this convention were exchanged in Rio de Janeiro on October 30, 1931.

The General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation and the General Treaty of Inter-American Arbitration signed by the plenipotentiaries of the American Republics at the International Conference of American States on Conciliation and Arbitration (Washington, December 10, 1928, to January 5, 1929), were proclaimed by the head of the Provisional Government of Brazil through two decrees issued on February 2 and March 15, 1932, respectively. The ratification of the former was deposited with the Government of the United States on January 25, 1932, and that of the latter with the Government of Chile on January 22, 1932.

The President of the Republic of Uruguay, considering "that relations with the Pan American Union have assumed great importance, especially in view of the frankly Pan American orientation of Uruguayan foreign policy, . . ." has decreed the organization of a special Pan American section in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to take charge of all matters between the Pan American Union and the Uruguayan Government.

Resolutions Nos. 260, 263, 264, and 362 passed by the National Congress of the Dominican Republic and signed by the President on January 23, 1932, approve four of the conventions signed at the Sixth International Conference of American States: The convention on the rights and duties of states in the event of civil strife, the convention on asylum, the convention on consular agents, and the convention on treaties, respectively. As provided in these conventions the ratifications on the part of the Dominican Government have been deposited

in the Pan American Union, which in turn has notified the other signatory states of the receipt of the ratifications.

On approving the convention on consular agents the Congress of the Dominican Republic denied approval to Articles 12, 15, 16, 18, 20, and 21 of the convention; and stated that in Article 14, the word *delito* (*crime* in the English text) was to be interpreted in the widest meaning of the word to include transgressions, crimes, and violations; and that the phrase *materia criminal* (*criminal matters*) in Article 17 as including "all penal matters."

The terms of a treaty for the advancement of peace signed by representatives of the United States and Uruguay on July 20, 1914, provide that all disputes between them, to the settlement of which previous arbitration treaties do not apply, shall, when diplomatic methods of adjustment have failed, be referred to a permanent international commission composed of 5 members; 1 member chosen from each country by the Government thereof, 1 member chosen by each Government from some third country, and a fifth member chosen by common agreement between the 2 Governments.

The joint commissionership for which provision is made in the treaty having been vacant for some time, an agreement was recently reached by the Governments of the United States and Uruguay to invite Dr. Rafael H. Elizalde to accept the position. This invitation was recently extended and accepted. Doctor Elizalde is a prominent Ecuadorean diplomat. During his distinguished career he has served his country as Minister for Foreign Affairs and as Minister Plenipotentiary to Argentina, Chile, and the United States.

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## LEGISLATION

*Votes for women and other electoral provisions.*—One of the early acts of the Provisional Government of Brazil was the appointment of a special commission to draft a new law to govern the election of a constitutional assembly. The electoral law drafted by this commission and decreed by the Provisional President on February 24, 1932, goes farther, however, and has standardized election requirements throughout the country, since its provisions apply not only to the forthcoming national election for a constitutional convention but to all elections held in Brazil, whether Federal, State, or municipal.

The law extends suffrage to women and institutes the secret ballot system. Any citizen over 21 years of age, without discrimination as to sex, who can fulfill the requirements of the election law, is declared eligible to vote. Magistrates, commissioned officers of the Army and

Navy, government employees, professors of educational establishments recognized by the Government, registered merchants, and physicians, lawyers, and other members of the liberal professions are granted the right to vote *ex officio*. All others must qualify. To be able to write is the principal requirement. Paupers, enlisted men in the Army and Navy, and illiterates are not eligible.

Citizens who are eligible to vote and do not register can not hold public office or be employed in the Government service; however, women, and men over 60 years of age, as well as citizens residing abroad or domiciled in Brazil less than one year before the elections, may exempt themselves from registering and voting if they so desire.

Questions of nationality continue to be governed by the laws in force before the advent of the Provisional Government, but in regard to the nationality of a married woman the election law states that section 5 of Article 69 of the Constitution of 1891 (which provides that a foreign man living in Brazil and having real property there who is married to a Brazilian woman or who has Brazilian children, has Brazilian nationality) also applies to a foreign woman married to a Brazilian. The law also declares (Art. 3 (b)) that "a Brazilian woman does not lose her nationality by marriage to a foreigner."

The law institutes a system of courts and magistrates throughout the Republic, with administrative as well as judicial functions which will deal with all electoral matters. A Superior Tribunal is to be established in Rio de Janeiro and a Regional Tribunal in each of the State capitals as well as in the Federal District and the Territory of Acre.

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## ACTIVITIES OF THE URUGUAYAN GOVERNMENT DURING 1931

In Uruguay, as in other Republics of Latin America, it is customary for the President to open the regular sessions of Congress with a review of the activities of the Government during the previous year. The report of the President of Uruguay, however, is limited to a brief summary of the work of the Departments of the Interior (in charge of the national police force), Foreign Relations, and War and Navy. The presentation of facts regarding the work of the Departments of Public Instruction, Finance, Industry, and Public Works is made by the National Administrative Council, which, according to the provisions of the Uruguayan constitution, is directly responsible for their supervision.

In discussing the activities of the Department of Foreign Relations in his message to Congress on February 15, 1932, President Terra pointed out that, following a suggestion offered in the presidential message of March, 1930, arrangements had been made to enlist the coop-

eration of the diplomatic service in the promotion of national foreign trade. While it was impossible to realize all that was expected, much has been accomplished, and when contemplated changes in the diplomatic and consular law are effected an even greater degree of cooperation should be secured. Under the new arrangement, the foreign office will act not only as a directive force, guiding and protecting established commercial interests, but will engage in definite activities to open up new markets.

The promotion of economic relations with other Republics by means of trade agreements has likewise been an object of special interest on the part of the department during recent months, and at present a detailed study is being made of the foreign trade of Uruguay with specific countries, in order to determine what type of treaty would be most suitable in each case. One condition essential for the conclusion of such treaties—the fixing of maximum and minimum customs duties—has now been met, and as a further step the department invited Argentina and Brazil to attend a conference for the purpose of discussing trade agreements favorable to their respective interests. The conference opened in Montevideo on December 15, 1931 (see *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for April, 1932).

The Bureau of Foreign Commerce has continued to render a very important service which it has endeavored to make still more effective by maintaining constant communication with those national institutions directly concerned with trade. The bureau is also now acting as an exchange where Uruguayan authors may apply for assistance in placing their work before the public of other countries.

Constantly alert to the economic interests of the country, the department has appointed a commission for the promotion of tourist travel; this is composed of the executives of agencies interested in creating conditions conducive to travel. Definite results of its work are already evident; schedules of railway and steamship lines have been readjusted, rates reduced, and a system put into operation for controlling the charges made by porters and taxicab drivers.

According to the report submitted to Congress by the National Administrative Council the various schools of the university functioned normally during the past year. One of the outstanding events of the academic year was the University Congress held in Montevideo from March 15-19, 1931, and attended by students and professors from several different countries. Reports of the activities of all the university schools show evidence of progress. The work of the Institute of Pathological Anatomy of the School of Medicine has been extended by the creation of a fine museum, and the scope of the activities of the School of Agriculture has been greatly broadened. Besides its regular work of experimentation in the laboratories, the

farms, experimental stations, and cooperative dairies, the latter has done much to inform the farmer of modern agricultural methods by means of publications, lectures, radio talks, posters, and handbills. That this service is proving of value and is appreciated is shown by the fact that there has been received at the school an increasing number of requests for further information.

The total number of students registered in the secondary schools throughout the Republic was 4,113; listed according to Departments they are as follows:

Department	Enrollment	Department	Enrollment
Artigas.....	204	Rio Negro.....	162
Canelones.....	160	Rivera.....	507
Cerro Largo.....	211	Rocha.....	257
Colonia.....	170	Salto.....	379
Colonia Valdense.....	128	San Carlos.....	94
Durazno.....	194	San Jose.....	235
Flores.....	146	Soriano.....	284
Florida.....	231	Tacuarembó.....	201
Lavalleja.....	194	Treinta y Tres.....	262
Maldonado.....	80		
Paysandu.....	314	Total.....	4,113

The primary schools in the Republic during the year 1931 numbered 1,316. These were staffed by 4,062 teachers, had a total enrollment of 168,274, and an average attendance of 131,771. Night schools numbered 63 and were taught by 232 teachers; their enrollment was 8,126 with an average attendance of 6,332. Other educational institutions included 2 normal institutes, 2 institutes for deaf mutes, 5 open-air schools, a seaside colony, a school preventorium, 65 itinerant schools, 4 experimental schools, a school for abnormal children, and the Artigas School in Asunción, Paraguay. Special normal courses, classes for the correction of speech defects, and classes for retarded children were also held under the supervision of the department during the year.

Through the cooperation of the official radio service, a school of the air was opened on October 1, 1931, and the broadcasts were made regularly until the close of the school term. Each program was adapted to the needs of a certain type of audience. On some occasions the programs consisted of songs, recitations, readings, and stories for children, while at other times they were planned for adults and featured talks on subjects related to education, economics, hygiene, and child welfare.

During the past year the department decided to suspend final examinations in the public schools of the Republic, a special social week during which the parents and general public may visit the schools being substituted. Other innovations introduced during the year were the establishment of Arbor Week and the creation of the Day of the American Student. The latter, to be held annually on



September 22, will be devoted to an exchange of correspondence between the pupils of Uruguay and those of the other American Republics. It is also planned to hold special programs featuring the geography, history, and literature of the various Republics on this date.

Six new dining rooms were established by the department in different sections of Montevideo during the year. These dining rooms, which have been placed under the supervision of the School Medical Corps, are of great importance, since they have made regular school attendance possible for many children who were formerly handicapped because their parents could not provide them nourishing meals at home.

During the year the corner stone of the School Park in Florida was laid. The park is being established as an experiment, and should it prove successful other schools of the same type will be built. It was recently planned to open a summer school in Montevideo where children might receive cultural training which the regular school, by nature of its organization, can not offer. The classes, which will be in charge of well-known artists and writers, will be unique; the child will learn through direct observation of nature and by visits to museums, art expositions, and other similar institutions.

At present the Council of Education is particularly concerned with the adoption of modern pedagogical methods. It does not intend, however, to make extensive changes immediately. A proposal is under consideration providing for the reorganization of classes in a number of schools along the principles of the progressive school, and should the method be found effective it will be adopted for all schools.

One of the most recent activities of the National Nutrition Committee was the establishment of a school of dietary instruction, to provide a 1-month course in each of the child-welfare clinics of the city. In this way mothers are afforded an opportunity of learning how to prepare inexpensive but wholesome food for their family.

Outstanding among the activities of the Ministry of Industries has been the promotion of agriculture, and thanks to the protective policy of the Government the industry has been kept relatively free from the disasters which have beset it in other countries. An illustration in point is a review of operations on the grain exchange during the year.

As a consequence of the law passed on February 7, 1930, which provided for the purchase by the State of the exportable balance of the wheat crop at a price of 5 pesos per 100 kilograms, the National Council has succeeded in protecting producers of this grain during the past year from losses which would have undoubtedly extended

into millions of pesos and resulted in the abandonment of large agricultural areas.

According to estimates, the 1930-31 wheat crop was scarcely sufficient for domestic consumption, being at best large enough to leave only a very small amount for exportation. Middlemen, however, endeavored to keep prices low and continued their usual policy of offering the grain for sale on the international market instead of reserving it for the domestic market, where it would be protected by the high tariff. In December, 1930, the price was about 3.70 pesos per 100 kilograms (kilogram equals 2.2 pounds). Since it was evident that the continuance of such a procedure would be disastrous to the farmers, the National Council of Administration announced that the Seed Commission would begin purchasing wheat from the growers at 5 pesos per 100 kilograms and issued a decree prohibiting importation of the grain.

Such measures had immediate effect. In 15 days the price rose more than a peso per 100 kilograms, and the majority of the farmers were able to sell their crops at prices closely approximating that paid by the Government, which purchased 7,000,000 kilograms.

About the middle of the year it was evident that the production would not be sufficient to meet the needs of domestic consumption. The Seed Commission, therefore, upon authorization by the National Council of Administration, proceeded to sell its wheat in the open market. This transaction netted a small profit and helped to avoid for a time at least an increase in the prices of wheat and of bread. Toward the end of the year, however, wheat rose to 7 pesos, and it was finally necessary to authorize the importation of more than 20,000 tons.

Three years of experience has amply demonstrated the benefits of the law. The first year of its enforcement, as a result of the difference between the cost and sale price of wheat as well as the payment of subsidies for the exportation of flour, the Government lost about 800,000 pesos. The farmers, however, were greatly benefited by the rise in domestic prices, which meant an estimated increase of more than 2,000,000 pesos in the value of their crops. The manufacture of flour, moreover, provided work for many persons; and while the price of bread was not increased, the cost of bran was considerably lowered, a great saving for dairy and poultry men.

During the second year the valorization of the crop netted the farmers profits of more than 1,500,000 pesos at no expense to the Government. And while it can not yet be ascertained accurately what the expenditure necessary will be during this year, it is believed that the farmers will benefit by about 2,000,000 pesos.

The National Administrative Council has also continued its work of promoting the cultivation of potatoes in an endeavor to prevent

the continued importation of this staple, with the annual expenditure of vast sums. As a result, the area under cultivation has been greatly extended, and during the past year a crop of more than 50,000,000 kilograms was harvested. While the whole crop could not be utilized on account of difficulties of preservation, what was used was sufficient to reduce by a third the amount spent on imports. The chief measures used by the council to this end were the sale of seed potatoes at prices 60 per cent below those ordinarily paid by the farmers and the establishment of increased custom duties on imported potatoes during the harvesting period.

The 1931 flax crop was estimated at 145,000 tons, or 16,000 tons more than that of the former year, and represented an export value of approximately 7,000,000 pesos at present prices. The wheat crop at current market prices was valued at 12,000,000 pesos.

The quantities of seed wheat, flax, and potatoes sold by the Seed Commission during the past year amounted to 18,000,000 kilograms and the number of bales of sisal cord to 5,000. Ordinarily the price of the latter ranges from 12.15 to 20 pesos per bale, but with its sale by the commission at 9.50 pesos the price was reduced and a saving of more than 100,000 pesos effected for the farmers.

The production of other farm products was continued satisfactorily. Laws and regulations for the protection of fruit growing, dairying, and poultry raising proved effective. Thanks to measures taken by the Ministry of Industries, the National Refrigerating Plant, the Bureau of Agronomy, and the Bank of the Republic, more than 300,000 pesos were realized from the export of eggs during the past year, a sum larger than any previously derived from this source.

In accordance with the Law of October 14, 1931, the national services of public welfare and hygiene were reorganized as the Council of Public Health. The new organization is in charge of all activities formerly carried on by the National Welfare Bureau, the Council of Hygiene, the Institute for the Prophylaxis of Syphilis, and the School Medical Corps.

Despite unfavorable financial conditions, the construction and enlargement of hospitals and other public-welfare institutions was continued. The municipal lodging house in Montevideo was finished and temporarily furnished that the homeless might be cared for during the winter months. The Catalina Parma de Beisso Mothers' Home was also finished, but it has not yet been furnished. Other buildings or additions completed during the year were the Fermín Ferreira Hospital, Dispensary No. 9 for respiratory diseases, and a ward for cancer patients in the Radiological Institute. Buildings have been reconditioned and equipped as child-welfare dispensaries in Cerrito de la Victoria, Pantanoso, and Maroñas. Construction on the maritime hospital, the gynecological radium treatment ward in

the Pereira-Rossell Hospital, and the Carmelo, Batlle y Ordóñez, Santa Isabel, Artigas, and Rosario Hospitals was continued during the past year, and the polyclinic ward of the Melo Hospital, the maternity wards in the Rocha and Florida Hospitals, and the communicable disease ward in the hospital at Rivera have been completed.

Through its health brigades, sanitary commissions, chemical laboratory, office of port sanitation, antirabies service, pharmacy inspection service, corps of public health physicians, health information service, and other divisions, the bureau has done much effective work.

The activities of the trade schools throughout the country is constantly being broadened and their number increased. During the past year a course on the industrial use of vegetable fibers has been introduced in the schools of San Carlos and Colonia Suiza, and School No. 3 of Montevideo; the study of home economics was made obligatory for all students in the women's trade school. The trade school at Trinidad has been completed and a school in cooperative organization was established in Carmelo.

During 1931 the Bureau of Agronomy, through its Division of Agricultural Promotion, has cooperated with other organizations in the sponsoring of numerous expositions, published regularly information on the state of the crops, arranged for the exhibition of motion-picture films on agricultural subjects, collaborated in the compilation of agricultural statistics, supervised the exportation of furs, farms for the breeding of nutrias, and the sale of gasoline for agricultural purposes, issued game laws, and carried on other related activities. The information office reported having arranged a number of lectures for the dissemination of agricultural information. One hundred and thirty-six motion-picture films were shown, 377 radio programs broadcast, and 12 new school gardens organized. These last, added to those already in operation, bring the number of gardens being worked at the present time to 80.

Other services maintained by the bureau included that of the cleaning of seeds and the forestry, brands, and poultry raising sections.

The work of the official Seed Commission, in charge of the distribution of selected seeds, was greatly intensified during the year. A total of 24,844 requests, involving 18,363,388 kilograms of seed valued at over 850,000 pesos, were received by the commission. Wheat, flax, oats, barley, alfalfa, corn, potatoes, and Sudan grass were among the seed sold and a quantity of chick-peas was distributed free of charge.

The work of the National Phytotechnic Institute and Seed Farm, in charge of experiments in applied plant genetics, general agricultural experimentation, and the production of pedigreed seed, was carried on as usual. The institute is composed of three sections—

the flour and bread-baking experimental laboratory, the division of industrial and forage plants, and the phytopathologic laboratory, organized during 1931.

During the year the General Bureau of Immigration and Colonial Inspection was moved to a new building which provides spacious quarters for the whole service. Immigrants arriving in the country numbered 12,715, a total considerably less than that during the previous year, when the arrival of 18,116 immigrants was reported. Spain was the nation having the largest group of immigrants, 3,392 individuals having arrived from that country; Poland came next with 1,671; and the number from other countries was as follows: Italy, 1,324; Rumania, 794; Germany, 719; Yugoslavia, 656; and Hungary, 504.

Other sections and bureaus under the Department of Industries carrying on effective work during the year were the Institute of Chemical Industry, the Mining and Industrial Inspection Service, the National Labor Office, the Patent Office, the Geological Institute, the Printing Office, the Bureau of Fisheries, the National Observatory, and the General Bureau of Standards.

The Ministry of Public Works announced that despite unfavorable financial conditions it had continued its work practically as heretofore. The port works authorized by the law of January 26, 1922, have been continued; some of them have been finished and work on others such as the floating dock and repair work, was carried on as funds permitted. The fruit market which was begun in October, 1929, was finished, and the construction of the National Refrigerating Plant as well as of storage places for inflammables has been continued.

The maintenance of ports and the conservation of navigable channels in the Uruguay and other rivers has received much attention on the part of the office. Port works at Salto, Paysandu, and Fray Bentos have been completed with the installation of electric cranes.

The construction of the Florida-Sarandi and Treinta y Tres-Rio Branco railway was continued; work on the former had progressed sufficiently to permit temporary service for the transportation of cereals produced in the region between Florida and kilometer 50 at rates favorable to the farmers in that section.

The expenditures of the Ministry of Public Works during the year reached a total of 16,872,294 pesos, of which approximately 7,000,000 pesos was spent for labor. Amounts expended for the various phases of the work were as follows: Highways, 4,581,334; hydrography, 1,263,352; topography, 10,106; sanitation, 1,590,594; architecture, 2,119,906; railways, 4,835,366; port works, 1,627,645; the Colonia Highway, 824,993; and the Maua Bridge, 18,996 pesos.

## MONETARY AND BANKING REFORMS IN MEXICO

The reorganization of the Bank of Mexico in a form similar to that of the Federal Reserve Banking system of the United States is the latest of a series of monetary and banking reforms initiated by the Government of Mexico on July 25, 1931, with the passage of the law depriving gold of its monetary functions and establishing the silver peso as the monetary unit of Mexico.<sup>1</sup> The fact that this law prohibited the further coinage of silver currency created certain fears that paper money would be issued without guarantee. This led to the hoarding of the silver coins and a subsequent decrease in the number in circulation. According to a statement issued in the spring of 1932 by the Minister of Finance, sight deposits in national currency in all the banks of Mexico diminished from 143,000,000 pesos on the date the law was issued to 115,000,000 five days later and continued to dwindle to 95,000,000 pesos. To restore the stability which had been affected by this dangerous depletion of available currency as well as to strengthen credit and restore business confidence, a new monetary law was passed on March 9, 1932, which made several important changes in the law of July 25, 1931. The Central Banking Commission, established the previous year, was dissolved and the Bank of Mexico restored to its functions as the regulator of national currency, with authority to order the mintage of coins in accordance with the monetary needs of the country. The reserves of the bank were to be increased with the difference between the cost of bullion and the face value of the coins which it minted.

As an extraordinary measure to offset the scarcity of money in circulation the Secretary of Finance was authorized to order immediately the coinage of silver pesos to the extent and quantity deemed necessary by the directors of the bank. The law was favorably received throughout the country, and without materially affecting fluctuations in the foreign exchange rate of the peso it has caused an appreciable increase in bank deposits, a sign that hoarded money is being put in circulation and a reflection of an increased feeling of confidence. The number of silver pesos to be coined was not fixed, for the law declares the amount is strictly limited to that which the bank considers necessary to offset the scarcity of money in circulation. Naturally the more pesos put back in circulation the smaller the total issue needed.

The Bank of Mexico was established on September 1, 1925 (see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for December, 1925); it is a

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<sup>1</sup> For a detailed account of the law of July 25, 1931, see the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for November, 1931.

Government-controlled institution not to be confused with the National Bank of Mexico, which is under private control. The law of August 25 of that year which created the bank empowered it to perform the functions usually associated with a central bank; however, it also provided for direct loan and discount operations, and in actual practice the Bank of Mexico came to exercise more of the functions of a private bank than those peculiar to a central institution of issue and rediscount.

The Bank of Mexico, however, will no longer compete with private institutions. The decree issued by President Ortiz Rubio on April 12, 1932, abrogates the law of August 25, 1925, and places the bank in a position to assume new and important functions. The decree provides that the Bank of Mexico shall be the sole bank of issue in the Republic, regulate the monetary circulation, the interest rate, and the foreign-exchange rate, carry on rediscount operations arising out of legitimate commercial transactions, centralize the banking reserves of the nation, act as a clearing house for its member banks, be the fiscal agent and sole depository of the funds of the Federal Government, and in general do all business of a nature consistent with its functions as a central bank within the limitations prescribed by the law.

The authorized capital of the bank has been reduced from 100,000,000 to 50,000,000 pesos, which is fully paid. The writing off of between 16,000,000 and 17,000,000 pesos of doubtful paper from the capital of the bank has been reported by the United States Department of Commerce to have had a wholesome effect on banking and business generally.

Fifty-one per cent of the capital is held by the Government in the form of series A shares, the remaining 49 per cent, in series B shares, being held by banking institutions and private individuals. Those banks which according to the General Law of Credit Institutions (*Ley General de Instituciones de Crédito*) must be affiliated with the Bank of Mexico are obliged by law to purchase series B shares up to an amount equivalent to not less than 6 per cent of their capital and reserves. A later decree, issued by the President of the Republic on May 19, 1932, requires all credit institutions—including foreign banks or branches of foreign banks—receiving deposits from the public at 30 days or less to become affiliated with the bank. Domestic banks are allowed 30 days from the date of issue of the decree to subscribe to or purchase their shares; foreign banks are allowed three months.<sup>2</sup>

The Board of Directors (*Consejo de Administración*) is composed of 9 members, 5 appointed by the Government and 4 by the holders of

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<sup>2</sup> This decree also places certain restrictions on foreign banks. They are forbidden to receive savings deposits, act as trustees, issue cash, mortgage, or collateral bonds, shares, or deposit certificates, and a control is provided for their foreign currency deposits.

series B shares. Only individuals connected with the banking, industrial, agricultural, or commercial interests of the Republic can be directors, public officials being among those not eligible.

The four directors appointed by the holders of series B shares and one other director will constitute a special committee controlling a large share of the bank's business. They will pass upon rediscount and other operations which the law authorizes the Bank of Mexico to transact with its member banks: the purchasing of bankers' acceptances; the opening of secured current account credits; and the granting of advances on bills of exchange, cash certificates, and loan certificates issued by bonded warehouses. The entire board (on which the Government has a majority) passes on all matters of issue and monetary circulation, the fixing of the rediscount rate, the requisites of rediscountable paper, and the limit of rediscount operations. In order that the Government may have control over those functions of the bank which may concern the sovereignty and security of the State, the Secretary of Finance has the right to veto resolutions of the board of directors dealing with investments in foreign securities, deposits abroad, new currency issues, or operations involving the currency circulation or the public debt when in his opinion these operations may disturb the economic equilibrium of the country. In this manner it has been sought to divide equitably the control of the bank's functions between the two groups which contributed to the bank's capital.

Profits will be distributed as follows: 10 per cent to the reserve fund until this equals the capital and 5 per cent thereafter; 6 per cent to the dividends on the series B shares; 6 per cent to the Government (series A) shares; 10 per cent to the officers and employees of the bank, according to their salaries, until this amount reaches 30 per cent of the annual pay roll; and half of the remainder to the Federal Government as compensation for the privilege of issue, the other half being used to declare additional dividends up to 6 per cent on all shares.

At present the bank will issue bank notes only against documents payable in silver arising out of rediscount operations with member banks. The value of the notes issued can not exceed twice the amount of cash on hand in national currency, after deducting the sums made up by the monetary reserve, certain deposits of the member banks, and the reserve for deposits withdrawable in less than 30 days. Acceptance of the paper currency issued by the bank is voluntary, but the Federal, State, and municipal governments must accept it to any amount at face value in payment of public dues. The notes are convertible on demand into silver at their nominal value when presented at the Bank of Mexico or any of its branches; the law



expressly states that the Government stands behind all notes in circulation. The issue of bank notes against gold or bills of foreign exchange will not be made until conditions in the country return to normal and the growth in volume and value of the monetary reserve permits the stabilization of the peso.

The Bank of Mexico is specifically forbidden to make loans to the Federal Government, to States or municipalities, to grant current account credits, except to member banks when such credits are adequately secured, or to carry on direct operations of loan and discount. However, the bank is allowed under certain conditions to buy drafts and bills of exchange in the open market and to make advances on liquid securities. It may also make loans or advances on shares of corporations organized to establish new member banks, up to 50 per cent of the value of such shares. It can not accept and pay drafts; cash or certify checks unless duly guaranteed; subscribe to or invest in shares of any kind, except those of national credit institutions up to 10 per cent of their capital, provided that the total invested in these operations does not exceed 10 per cent of the capital of the bank; invest in bonds not quoted on official exchanges or in those which have not paid regular dividends for five years previous; invest more than 6 per cent of its capital in buildings and office equipment; pay interest on sums deposited for less than 30 days; pledge its securities or bank notes or use them as collateral; or mortgage its real estate.

# SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

REPORTS RECEIVED TO MAY 10, 1932

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA		
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Argentina from March 8 to 21, 1932. (Guggenheim scholarships and population.)	1932 Mar. 23	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Argentine Government salaries.....	Apr. 15	A. M. Warren, consul at Buenos Aires.
Celebration of and press comment on "Pan American Day" and "Pan Americanism."	Apr. 21	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
CHILE		
The Santa Maria Educational Foundation of Valparaiso.	Mar. 8	Frank A. Henry, consul at Valparaiso.
Tourist season at Viña del Mar.....	Mar. 18	Do.
Trade and industries of the agricultural city of Temuco, Chile.	Apr. 23	Thomas D. Bowman, consul at Santiago.
COLOMBIA		
No. 29 of the "Boletín de Estadística" of the Department of Antioquia.	Feb. 16	Carlos C. Hall, vice consul at Medellin.
Copy of "Informe al Gobernador del Departamento del Atlántico," February, 1932.	Mar. 5	Erik W. Magnuson, consul at Barranquilla.
Popayan-Pasto Highway.....	Mar. 16	Lyle C. Himmel, vice consul at Cali.
CUBA		
List of principal newspapers and magazines of Habana Consular District.	Mar. 24	Harold B. Quarton, consul at Habana.
Copy of Cuban census of 1931.....	Apr. 12	Embassy, Habana.
Observance of Pan American Day.....	Apr. 19	Do.
ECUADOR		
Excerpts from report on general conditions prevailing in Ecuador for February, 1932.	Mar. 1	Legation, Quito.
Centennial of the birth of Juan Montalvo.....	Mar. 17	Do
HAITI		
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Haiti from February 1 to 29, 1932.	Mar. 10	Legation, Port-au-Prince.
Pan American Day.....	Apr. 22	Do.
HONDURAS		
Disastrous fire in La Ceiba.....	Mar. 7	Warren C. Stewart, vice consul at La Ceiba.
Decree No. 95. (Taxes and charges for construction fund for School of Medicine and Pharmacy.)	Mar. 29	Gaston Smith, consul at Tegucigalpa.
PANAMA		
Pan American Airways open direct service between Panama and Mexico City.	Apr. 14	Herbert O. Williams, consul at Panama City.

*Reports received to May 10, 1932—Continued*

Subject	Date	Author
URUGUAY	1932	
Excerpt from report of general conditions prevailing in Uruguay for March, 1932. (Uruguayan attendance at Olympic games, and Uruguayan delegation to Refrigeration Congress.)	Apr. 1	Legation, Montevideo
VENEZUELA		
Radiotelephonic service between Venezuela and foreign countries.	Apr. 20	Legation, Caracas.





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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



MOUNT VERNON

WASHINGTON BICENTENNIAL NUMBER

JULY

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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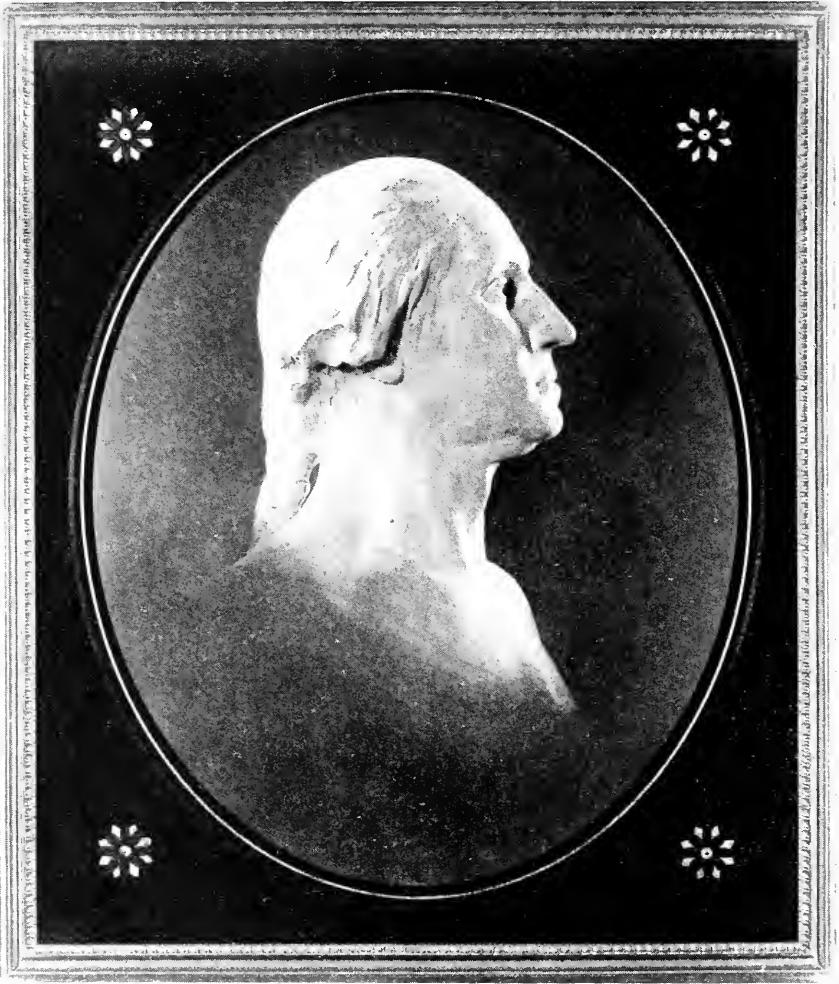
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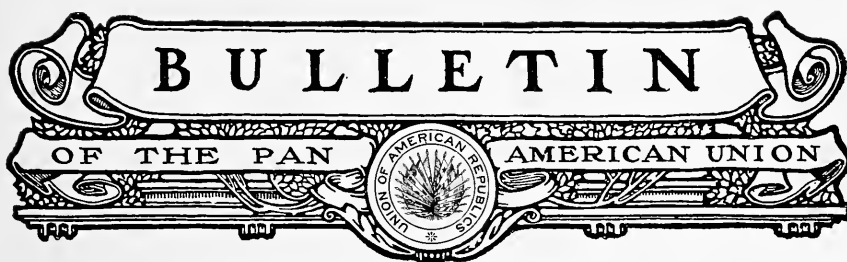


Courtesy of the George Washington Bicentennial Commission. Bust by Houdon

### GEORGE WASHINGTON

"In honoring his memory we are in a very real sense doing honor to those principles upon which rests the fabric of government throughout the American Continent."—Henry L. Stimson





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## THE AMERICAS PAY HOMAGE TO WASHINGTON

A NOTABLE tribute was paid to the memory of George Washington when the 20 Latin American Republics united on Pan American Day, April 14, in sending messages from their respective presidents to be read at his tomb at Mount Vernon by their Ambassadors, Ministers, and Chargés d'Affaires in the United States, who stood with the Hon. Francis White, Assistant Secretary of State of the United States, under the open sky before the simple brick mausoleum containing the sarcophagi of George and Martha Washington. One message after another eulogized Washington for the "strength of his uprightness," and the encouragement which his example gave to the American nations of the south "when on the threshold of their great destinies," and spoke of him as the hero who "represents the advent of republican democracy in the world," "the warrior, the governor, and the citizen, three times great, who was born two centuries ago for the good of the United States, for the honor of the new continent, and for the glory of the world." Thus the voice of the Americas confirmed the opinion expressed by Thomas Jefferson more than a hundred years ago when he said of Washington: "On the whole, his character was, in its mass, perfect, in nothing bad, in few points indifferent; and it may truly be said that never did nature and fortune combine more perfectly to make a man great, and to place him in the same constellation with whatever worthies have merited from man an everlasting remembrance. For his was the singular destiny and merit of leading the armies of his country successfully through an arduous war, for the establishment of its independence; of conducting its councils through the birth of a government, new in its forms and principles, until it had settled down into a quiet and orderly train; and of scrupulously obeying the laws through

the whole of his career, civil and military, of which the history of the world furnishes no other example."

The presidential tributes in full were as follows:

#### ARGENTINA



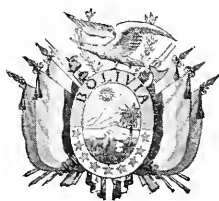
The Government and the people of the Argentine Republic join the Government and the people of the United States of America in this act in which homage is paid to the memory of their most illustrious citizen, Gen. George Washington, on the occasion of the bicentennial celebration of his birth. It behooves the nations of the New World to render this just tribute to him who through his heroic efforts and his exemplary life gave a model of republican virtue to serve as a common ideal which all the nations of America strive to realize in their democratic life, adapting to this ideal their political and juridical institutions.

By giving an impetus to the struggle for the independence of his country, George Washington led the way to lasting emancipation.

The Argentine Republic, acclaiming once more the triumph of republican ideas, cherishes the memory of the hero of the great Nation of the North, because of the encouragement which the American Nations of the South received through his example when on the threshold of their great destinies.

AGUSTÍN P. JUSTO.

#### BOLIVIA



The people and the Government of Bolivia join in this celebration and are proud to pay a tribute of loving respect and admiration to George Washington, the Father of American Democracy.

DANIEL SALAMANCA.

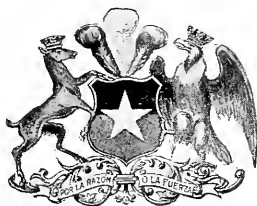
## BRAZIL



When the United States, as all America, is commemorating the bicentennial of Washington's birthday and thinking of his venerated and beloved figure as an Apostle of Democracy, I have the honor to convey to the American Government and to the American people the sincere admiration and the friendship of the Brazilian Government and the Brazilian people.

GETULIO VARGAS.

## CHILE



On this day, set apart by the American Republics to join in a reaffirmation of their common aspirations for peace and friendly cooperation, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union has chosen to pay reverent and admiring homage to the memory of George Washington.

To George Washington Latin America is indebted for the ideals he defended with incomparable brilliance and tenacity. When the time came for its determination to be free, the example of the United States was its inspiration, wherein it found the strength for its battles for liberty.

George Washington was not only the father of the democracy of this great Nation but also a model of inspiring genius for the great liberators of the peoples of the American continent.

JUAN ESTEBAN MONTERO.

## COLOMBIA



From the life of George Washington one lesson stands forth that is to me of more interest than the great work he accomplished in winning the independence and liberty of his country. It is that in this great American is incarnate the type of statesman that is capable of converting his ideal of government into a practical and stable reality through the sheer strength of his uprightness and determination, without having recourse to secret machinations, to opportunism, or to that divergence between public and private morality of which the science and art of politics have been believed for many centuries to consist.

Washington intrusted his success to the rectitude of his purpose, and he was indifferent to, if not disdainful of, the fortuitous and transitory unpopularity of his deeds.

Washington is the new Prince, whose rules of government are studied with devotion and followed with loyalty by the conscientious men of all nations.

ENRIQUE OLAYA HERRERA.

## COSTA RICA



Great and powerful is the United States. Its population astonishes; its swift development astounds; its productive power is immeasurable; the rapidity of its rise on the path of progress appears the work of centuries, though it is the result of barely a hundred years.

On the heights of this great Nation is outlined an august silhouette. Clothed in gentle austerity, with a faint smile that betokens paternal pride, with thoughtful mien, this noble figure sees the just and patriotic work of his hands grow from day to day. Along the straight road

that his wisdom determined the great Nation marches forward, proud of its youthful might, but when it stops to meditate, the soul of the Nation is uplifted and blesses the father of its institutions, the great Washington.

CLETO GONZÁLEZ VÍQUEZ.

CUBA



George Washington, guide and soul of the Revolution which gave independence to the thirteen Colonies, was, at the same time, the precursor of all the revolutions which have given liberty to all America. His efforts, his energy, the continuity of his aims in the most difficult hours as in those of victory, and his definite achievement were as an imperative mandate to the patriots of the rest of the new continent. In the long chain of historical events the North indicated to the South the route which led to the formation of a national conscience, the highest stage of our modern era.

Washington, from the highest national magistracy, practicing all the virtues, became the great teacher of all rulers. His life, dedicated to the public good, his serenity of action, his equilibrium in those difficult times in which nationality, though already politically formed, was not morally or psychologically perfected, constitute the fundamental teaching which was followed by all rulers in new countries.

Cuba, the last nation of America to cease to be a colony, has felt the influence of the Great American, as she could feel that of one of her most illustrious sons. His grandeur served as an example to our heroes, his high standards of morality to our governors, and all his acts inspired the best actions of our people.

On this day, the 14th of April, which has been consecrated to Pan Americanism, permit me in the name of the people and of the Government of Cuba to unite with all the other peoples and Governments of the Americas in rendering our homage of admiration and respect to the warrior, the governor, and the citizen, three times great, who was born two centuries ago for the good of the United States, for the honor of the new continent, and for the glory of the world.

GERARDO MACHADO.

## DOMINICAN REPUBLIC



To evoke the memory of George Washington on Pan American Day, on the occasion of the bicentenary of his birth, is the same as to reaffirm the continental significance of this great champion of liberty. The glory of Washington as a symbolic hero does not belong exclusively to the United States of America; the whole American continent claims it for itself. Washington represents the advent of republican democracy in the world, and that lofty principle in the realm of political ideals was developed and consolidated in modern times by the joint effort of all the nations of the New World when they became independent republics. To America is due the strengthening of republican ideals, which each day become more and more widely spread throughout the world, and the lofty figure of George Washington marks the beginning of this new stage in the political development of nations.

Fervently admiring the military glories and the civic virtues of George Washington and fully understanding the high significance of his personality, I have the honor, as a faithful interpreter of my Government and my people, to associate the name of the Dominican Republic with this tribute.

RAFAEL L. TRUJILLO.

## ECUADOR



The Pan American Union, by taking an active and leading part in the commemoration of the second centenary of Washington's birth, is performing a service worthy of the highest praise and one that will be a stimulus to true continental solidarity.

Nobility of character, a serene spirit, virile energy, and a heart full of sympathy, love, and humanity—these qualities which Washington possessed offer a magnificent exemplar for the ready admiration of America and the world.

May it be our good fortune that he who was first in so many paths of greatness, in war, in peace, and in the hearts of his countrymen, may sincerely and loyally unite the nations of America in a lasting union of peace, prosperity, and progress.

ALFREDO BAQUERIZO MORENO.

#### EL SALVADOR



On the auspicious occasion of Pan American Day, I have the honor of offering my admiring homage to the memory of the great patriot, George Washington, and of paying my respects to the Pan American Union, which I fervently hope will continue to be a bond of union, a bulwark of justice, and a strong tie joining the Americas in constructive brotherhood.

MAXIMILIANO HERNÁNDEZ MARTÍNEZ.

#### GUATEMALA



Two centuries ago, by the grace of Providence, there was born in the thirteen Colonies of the New World that great man by whose hands human liberty, sacrificed through the absolutism of the past, was to be revived, and whose redeeming sword was to erect on a foundation of law the first democratic republic, the example of which would furnish to all the nations on earth the means of their political redemption.

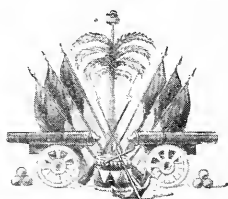
By virtue thereof, George Washington ceased to be merely a hero of the United States and became the founder of a new era which united all men in the same ideals of progress through equality and justice. But it was in Spanish America that his work found the unanimous welcome and immediate application that brought freedom from long-endured enslavement.

For this reason Guatemala to-day spontaneously and enthusiastically joins the great Republic of Washington and unites with the rest of the continent in paying honor to his name. All her schools are teaching the life and work of that blameless patrician and our press is publishing the different views by which historical criticism discovers in George Washington the most untarnished of memories, the purest of statesmen, and the most perfect of patriots.

May it please Heaven that his example shall continue to serve as a beacon to our Republics in their darkest moments of doubt and adversity.

JORGE UBICO.

#### HAITI



I gladly associate the Republic of Haiti on this Pan American Day with the ceremony which is part of the impressive celebration of the bicentennial of the birth of George Washington.

Our continent owes to this leader, eminent among all leaders, its first lesson of patriotism, its first glorious deeds, its first breath of emancipation, its first democratic virtues, the first basis of its international community of interests.

Furthermore, our hemisphere owes him that great principle—which he proclaimed with profound feeling in his Farewell Address to the American people—that the independence of the Nation should be considered more precious than all the benefits which might be obtained from abroad—a grandiose conception of national dignity which should be the gospel of the Latin American Republics.



It is true that we have the doctrine of Pan Americanism, which we place to-day under the tutelary power of that dead hero. Let us invoke at his tomb the enlightenment of his authority so that continental union may be better understood.

It can not be for naught that, following the example of George Washington, the American peoples should have cast off the chains of slavery, social or moral degradation, political domination, or the tyrannous persecution of their European mother countries; that they should have shaken off with no definite result the unhappy and unjust legacies of the colonial régime; that they should have approved the celebrated message of 1823, without enjoying in their own countries the ideas of liberty and independence proclaimed with respect to Europe; that their dreams of a regenerating civilization should be brutally dispelled by the selfish realities of international life.

At this tomb we must draw the lessons of experience and of history. The peoples of America must reassert themselves.

Appeals to solidarity, steps toward understanding and comprehension, hymns of cooperation and conciliation, manifestations of friendship and good will, efforts at closer relations, should be compensated by our democratic equality and by respect for our national independence and our liberty.

We must put behind us destructive doctrines, legal subtleties, new and strange dogmas, as well as the entire system "of interpositions of a temporary character," praised by blind forces seeking the protection of their commercial and banking status abroad, but which foster doubts, rancors, reservations, fears, utilitarian pressure, and fictitious independence.

Permit me to pay here a heartfelt tribute to President Hoover, whose powerful will is struggling against opposing currents and is giving proof of his liberalism, especially to the Republic of Haiti. President Hoover witnessed the great tragedy of the World War. Well he knows at the price of what miseries, what distress, what sufferings, what sacrifices, nations struggle for their independence and the maintenance of their rights.

Heir to the great tradition of George Washington, like his predecessor he will take up his responsibilities and confront the obscure forces which desire to prevent his Government from permitting the idea of sovereignty to prevail over private or individual interests or over "benefits to foreign countries."

STÉNIO VINCENT.

## HONDURAS



The Government and people of Honduras join in the homage that the United States of America is rendering to George Washington on this second centenary of his birth.

The founder of the great American Republic will always merit universal admiration. So long as the spirit of democracy abides in the world, the fundamental principles which he defended—the union of all; sacred respect for public justice; the maintenance of peace and harmony with other nations; the balance between the branches of government; tolerance for the opinions of others—these will forever be an inexhaustible fount of inspiration for all peoples.

The nations of America owe him a debt of gratitude, for by the most constructive example that the ages have seen he showed them how to build on a solid foundation a republic, free, great, affluent, powerful, and commanding universal respect.

VICENTE MEJÍA COLINDRES.

## MEXICO



My Government and the Mexican people associate themselves with the Government and people of the United States of North America on the occasion of the bicentennial of the birth of George Washington, that exemplary patriot in whom America recognizes the originator of the independence of our continent.

PASCUAL ORTIZ RUBIO.

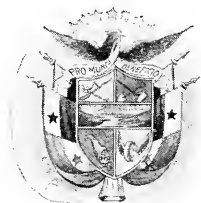
## NICARAGUA



Upon each occasion of homage to the memory of Washington, the people of the United States are most profoundly moved by the tribute of admiration offered by the whole civilized world. The Liberator of the United States gave not only liberty to his country but a national spirit that has been an example and an inspiration to the other nations of the earth. This is his greatest achievement. Greater even than his military triumphs, greater than his wise and noble statesmanship, is the desire he carried in his heart for the liberty of all America.

JOSÉ M. MONCADA.

## PANAMA



The work of freedom accomplished by George Washington precedes by almost half a century the emancipation of the Latin American colonies. Bolívar was born in Caracas the same year in which Washington entered New York at the head of his troops after being victorious in the Revolutionary War and making peace with England; and the American Cincinnatus went to his tomb at Mount Vernon 10 years before the movements to regain liberty broke out in Hispanic America. There could, then, be no direct relation between Washington and the Republics of Iberian origin which to-day share with the United States the high ideals of Pan Americanism, but to America and to the whole world George Washington was the valiant paladin of liberty and the purest incarnation of democracy. For this reason on the bicentennial of his birth it is fitting to remember that in the history of republics it was Washington who pointed out the way, who cleared the path, and who bequeathed to future generations imperish-

able examples of rectitude, unselfishness, wisdom, and true republicanism; and therefore, in the name of the Republic of Panama, of which I have the honor to be President, I send to-day to the people of the United States, through the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, a message of cordial sympathy with the universal tribute which the free nations of the earth are rendering to the illustrious memory of the Liberator of the United States.

RICARDO J. ALFARO.

#### PARAGUAY

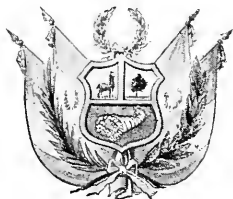


The public life of George Washington, so fertile in its immediate results, was fertile also in the consequences it had in Hispanic America. The energy and will with which he carried forward the great enterprise of bringing a new and great nation into being, his love of democracy and liberty, his unbounded faith in the future of the New World, were lessons followed in the struggles for the independence and firm establishment of our nations which began on the Río de la Plata in 1810.

Like a powerful beacon his memory illumined the path which the fathers of the Hispanic American nations followed. And this light has never failed; to-day as yesterday it shines supreme in the skies of American democracy.

JOSÉ P. GUGGIARI.

#### PERU



In this commemoration of the second centenary of the birth of George Washington, the founder of American independence, the Peruvian Government and people associate themselves through me

with the rejoicing of the American Government and people, and pay the homage of their admiration to the hero and patriot who ordained in the United States the freest of all democracies and bequeathed to the world the unsurpassed example of his political integrity.

LUIS M. SÁNCHEZ CERRO.

#### URUGUAY



The Republic of Uruguay, where independence and democracy are revered by the people, joins in the homage which is being rendered to the memory of Washington on this second centenary of his birth. Washington's uprightness in the exercise of the highest public offices, the orientation of his Government in the direction of peace and respect for other nations, and the recognition of his virtues by his fellow citizens make of the first President of the United States a figure venerated throughout America, but particularly in Uruguay, where his memory and example are this year being honored.

GABRIEL TERRA.

#### VENEZUELA



I am happy to take part in the homage which the Pan American Union is to-day rendering to the memory of Washington.

Washington it was who made the principle of the sovereignty of the people prevail for the good of the country, and who loved peace founded on justice and mutual respect.

Inspired with the same ideas, Bolívar strove to bring about the union of the nations of this continent, and Venezuela, modeling its

policy on the counsels of the Liberator, renews once again on this occasion its sincere good wishes for the brotherhood of the Republics of America and for universal peace.

J. V. GÓMEZ.

After the last message had been read, a wreath was deposited on behalf of all the speakers by His Excellency Dr. Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala.

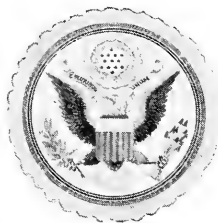
Because of the departure of Secretary of State Stimson for Europe, the response for the Government of the United States was made by the Assistant Secretary of State, Hon. Francis White, who said:

GENTLEMEN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD:

I wish to assure you how deeply the Government and people of the United States appreciate the tribute which your respective nations are paying to the memory of Washington. Here at this sacred shrine which was the scene of his activities for so many years, the assembling of the representatives of the Republics of America to do him honor possesses a special significance.

It was a most gracious act on your part to devote the 1932 celebration of Pan American Day to the founder of this Republic. The ideals for which he struggled have so much in common with those of the founders of the other Republics of America that I feel that we are to-day paying tribute to that great company of patriots to whom we owe the existence of the free nations of this Continent. Although we can never hope to repay the debt which we owe to them, we can show our devotion to the ideals for which they struggled by constantly emphasizing and fostering the common interests of the American Republics and developing in every possible way the spirit of cooperation and mutual helpfulness which happily exists between them.

I desire again to express to you and through you to the Chiefs of State here represented the deep and heartfelt gratitude of the Government and people of the United States for this generous tribute.



## THE GOVERNING BOARD HONORS THE MEMORY OF WASHINGTON

**F**EBRUARY 22, 1932, was observed with special ceremonies everywhere throughout the United States as the bicentennial of the birth of that hero whom the entire Nation delights to honor. In the Capital the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, composed of the representatives of the 20 Republics of Latin America and the Secretary of State of the United States, met in special session to commemorate the day. The assemblage in the imposing Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union was but a small part of those who shared in the ceremonies, broadcast over nation-wide chains throughout the United States and also sent by short wave to all the other countries of the American Continent. The Marine Band orchestra played a program of music as part of the exercises.

The Vice Chairman of the Board, His Excellency Dr. Orestes Ferrara, Ambassador of Cuba, made an eloquent address on behalf of his colleagues, paying homage to Washington in the following words:

The great principles which sum up the experiences of mankind do not suffice to show us the path of duty and the road to salvation in times of difficulty. On the other hand, the life of a man, converted into a symbol, may dominate our minds, guide our hearts, and elevate our spirits. A great man is the noblest work of God, for he is the incarnation of beauty and goodness, of honor and service, of that eternal virtue which illumines the straight and narrow way of thought and deed.

George Washington is one of the beacons placed at intervals along the high-road of history. For his country he serves as a guide in time of stress and a refuge in tranquil moments; a never-failing example of true goodness; a warning to turbulent youth; and a mute accusation of selfish interests. Thus it is always he who vivifies the moral principles of his fellow countrymen. The difficult and absorbing scene in which he played the leading rôle did not mar his personality. He was a redoubtable agitator because the times required it, yet he always preserved his serenity of spirit; he was an energetic revolutionary, imbued, however, with the ideal of order; he was a politician, but not an opportunist; a citizen of a new democracy, but not a martyr. His character was admired by his contemporaries and is venerated by posterity.

Washington is an example of perfect balance, of perfect harmony. He was equally great in peace and in war, in the little acts of daily life and in the principles which he followed with constancy and devotion.

The people of the United States, with legitimate pride, hold him their greatest glory. But although Washington gave himself only to the service of the thirteen Colonies of North America, his life is a heritage belonging to the whole world. Virtue claims him for her own and, regardless of frontiers, makes him a citizen of every corner of the globe.

The example of Washington, the chief leader in securing the independence of his country, was an inspiration to the free governments organized on the vast continent discovered by Spain. The American revolution was a notable step forward along the path of progressive ideas and because of this, as well as for geographical reasons, it had a far-reaching effect on the peoples to the south of the United States. All the institutions erected on the ruins of colonial rule were modeled on the constitution which their brethren of the north had previously written for themselves.

In the heroic struggle for independence throughout the wide lands of Latin America, many were the illustrious and glorious leaders who, with magnificent generosity, offered their strength and their intellect to the cause of liberty. To them the name of Washington was a shining symbol, and each son of a new republic who rendered the greatest service to the nascent democracy was figuratively called the "Washington" of his country.

The principle that no President should succeed himself for a third term, although not included in the Constitution of the United States by the signers of that document, was nevertheless established by Washington in his country by his own volition. Latin America, however, adopted this principle in its written constitutions, maintaining it notwithstanding crises and lapses. The precedent set by George Washington in refusing to bow to the will of the majority of his compatriots, who would have elected him to the Presidency for the third time, has for more than a century been the Latin American constitutional principle that is most cherished and respected by the masses.

The parting advice given to his fellow citizens in his Farewell Address, not to take part in European struggles and not to intervene in the controversies which geography and history might occasion in that noble and ancient continent, was a solemn warning heeded also by Latin America. The statesmen of the 20 republics which were successively established managed to keep themselves aloof from the confused fluctuations of European politics, thus preventing the balance of power in Europe, when disturbed, from being redressed as a result of conflict in America, according to the phrase and the desire of an eminent statesman of the last century.

Universal applause, without dissent and without reserve, is a worthy tribute to the admirable picture presented by the life of George Washington. The voice of his soul told him that only noble purposes and good deeds inspire and nourish unselfishness. His mental powers gave him, from his earliest years, a clear comprehension of the fact that in our mortal life the part reserved for each one of us is but small and fleeting, for from birth we live with others and for others. His penetrating intelligence, trained in the school of integrity, taught him that all men, even confirmed egoists, look outside themselves to study the great truths handed down from age to age and to strive eagerly in fathoming the secrets of that future which they themselves will not see. Washington in his maturity learned how to impose upon himself and his soldiers the supreme sacrifice in homage to an ideal.

His life was a hymn in praise of honor, uprightness, and patriotism. Therefore, on this day, the two hundredth anniversary of his birth, let us hail a man whose personality, at once martial and benevolent, is our inspiration in hours of sorrow as well as in hours of rejoicing.

The Chairman of the Board, Hon. Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of State, responded on behalf of the Government of the United States:

Permit me to express to you the deep appreciation of the Government of the United States for the fine tribute which you have to-day paid to the memory of



Washington. The eloquent address of the Vice Chairman of the Board, His Excellency the Ambassador of Cuba, which has been heard far beyond the confines of this building, will, I am certain, make a deep impression on the people of this country.

Washington belongs to that great company of patriots—founders of the Republics of this continent—animated by a common purpose and inspired by a common ideal. In honoring his memory we are in a very real sense doing honor to those principles upon which rests the fabric of government throughout the American Continent.





GEORGE WASHINGTON OF VIRGINIA

This portrait by the Ecuadorean artist, Luis Cadena, was painted in 1877, at Quito. The property of the White House, it has been lent to the Pan American Union for exhibition during the bicentennial year by the President and Mrs. Hoover.

# WASHINGTON AS AN INTERNATIONALIST

By ALBERT BUSHNELL HART, LL. D.

*Historian, United States George Washington Bicentennial Commission*

## I. SCHOOLS OF BIOGRAPHY

FOUR dissonant schools of biography during the last hundred years have been contending for supremacy in the wide and important area of George Washington. The first is the infantile school, which under the leadership of the late Parson Weems (never Rector of Mount Vernon) has acquired such a hold on the minds of youthful and mature Americans as would make posterity believe that the greatest of American statesmen, in his own period and in American history, was a prize Sunday school product; and that triviality was the characteristic of his youthful mind and of course must have affected his decisions throughout his life. After the Revolution sprang up a second group of biographers, who worked on the heroic basis. They saw in him a great soldier—which he was—but left out of account his remarkable individual characteristics.

It was nearly a hundred years after his death before there rose a third school of so-called historians made up of writers apparently enraged by the national admiration of Washington, who have spent aeons of research and avalanches of print paper in the effort to prove him a failure—defeated in frontier warfare, nerveless in the Revolution, hesitating in statesmanship, occupied with sensual intrigues—in a word, a possessor of one of the earliest reported inferiority complexes. The main purpose of this debunking, negative, downhill literature appears to be to sell books to a public which is jaded with successive doses of historical virus.

A fourth school of writers treat Washington as a remarkable human being with an extraordinary staying power. This school was really founded by Washington Irving, whose *Life of Washington* is still one of the excellent biographies. These writers see in Washington not only the frontiersman, the general, the president, but a leader of the American people; a prophet who foresaw in his mighty mind some of the possible complications of the nineteenth century.

## II. INTERNATIONAL STATUS OF THE AMERICAN COLONIES

To understand how far the mind of Washington may have gone in the direction of fundamental international understandings, it is necessary to take account of the status of international relations in

the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, when the English colonies were established. It seems incredible that North and South America should have lain for ages unknown to Europeans. In the first century after discovery, both North and South America were treated as territory conquered or to be conquered for the benefit of the European nations who first sent out voyages of discovery, and then armies and navies of conquest.

The extent of wild territory was so vast that for a time there was room for separate Spanish and Portuguese and French and English and Dutch and Swedish occupations. The Latin nations practically asserted that the colonies were outlying portions of the European countries, and as such the colonies became units of conquest and occupation in European wars. Conflicting theories of possession by discovery, by occupation, and by continuous colonization led to violent controversies over title and boundaries. The Mississippi Valley was an object of contention between Spain, France, and England till 1763; and its status was not put on a continuing basis until the Louisiana treaty of 1803, four years after Washington's death.

Every exploring and colonizing power claimed title by a combination of first discovery, first occupation, first extinguishment of the title of the natives, and first organization into colonies and colonial systems. The North American colonies at the time of Washington's birth in 1732 were planted rather at haphazard: French northern islands and the valley of the St. Lawrence; Spanish settlements on the Gulf of Mexico contested by French and English; and the Ohio Valley, as yet almost free from European colonists and open to discovery and settlements. The English had obtained a clear coastline from Maine to Georgia, having extinguished the small Dutch and Swedish colonies; but the question of the western interest was just coming up.

Under directions from England, carried out by Governor Dinwiddie, Washington in 1753 was sent out to the frontier as the agent to warn the French that the English Government claimed the Ohio Valley. In 1754 he commanded colonial troops on his first battlefield, the encampment of Jumonville, which happened to be near the watershed between the Atlantic and Mississippi waters. This was the first armed conflict for the English claim to the Ohio Valley. In 1755 he participated in Braddock's formal campaign by English regular troops, combined with colonial militia.

This was a very practical experience of the influence of territorial claims and the status of international law as to title to new territory. Carrying out decisions made by the ministry of Great Britain, this young man was the most active personal force in asserting the doctrine of interior territorial claims not based on first discovery or occupation. In all the proceedings, from Washington's first official notice in 1753 that the English claimed the title, to the treaty of 1763, in which

that title was made good, it never entered his mind that arbitration was the proper recourse in such contentions; and still less that there could be such a thing as a combination of nations which would have authority to make and perhaps to enforce decisions between rival claimants to territory, or to decide other international controversies.

### III. INTERNATIONAL LAW OF FEDERAL UNIONS

Notwithstanding Washington's haziness as to international law respecting discovered territory previous to the Revolution, there were publicists in his time who recognized governmental organizations, somewhat resembling the League of Nations, which had been set up centuries before the American Revolution. These weak but long continuing federal governments sprang up in various forms in Europe. That a combination of national and state political organizations was possible was certainly clear to James Madison when he made up for the use of the Federal Convention of 1787 an analysis of all the forms of federal government of which he could find record, from the Greek and the early Latin to the Holy Roman Empire, and thence down to 1787. The reason for the study of those organizations was that they suggested mutual concessions and forms of organization which might be realized in the forthcoming Constitution of the United States of America.

The Federal Constitution involved a merger of sovereignty. Public law was a subject little studied in the English colonies of North America, though the College of William and Mary in the eighteenth century began to take cognizance of that field of human organization. John Adams read Burlamaqui while an undergraduate at Harvard. Heineccius was not unknown. Nevertheless, Grotius is quoted little or not at all, and there is no evidence before the Revolution that the founders of the American Republic had definite knowledge of the then existing remnants of disparate nations.

Nevertheless, when Washington was born in 1732 there was still in existence a Holy Roman Empire, which included in imperfect form what moderns consider the three coordinate branches of federal government: A "Deutscher Kaiser im Reich," chosen by seven electoral princes was a weak federal executive; a federal Diet wrangled over public business; and on occasion, decisions were rendered by a federal court, whose hall of sitting is still to be seen in Regensburg. Disputes between members of the union were sometimes referred to that court. There were even some constitutional documents which set forth the forms and conditions of the federal system. Within the area of the Holy Roman Empire, certain Swiss cantons and cities had built up a federal constitutional system, expressed in written documents, and including a method of settling legal disputes between the member states, which was in operation till 1806.

The most notable example of composite states having a common denominator, was the federation of seven Dutch Provinces, which revolted from Spain, and in 1579 formed the Union of Utrecht. This federation provided itself with a written constitution and created a body called "Their Highmightinesses the States General," which was the nearest approach to a federal congress, made up of members designated by the states, previous to the Albany Congress of 1754 and the Stamp Act Congress of 1765. That congress, and its successors, the later Continental Congresses of 1774 and 1775, were approaches to a general union of communities, eventually defined by the Articles of Confederation of 1781 as a "league of friendship."

The Articles of Confederation were a chapter in the federal experience of the British colonies in America, and the principles of this federation achieved the most effective form of international combination placed on a statutory basis known in the world up to that time. But the articles were not the first chapter of this experience. In 1643 delegates from Massachusetts, Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut, came together in Boston and drew up "a firme and perpetuall league of ffriendship and amytie for offence and defence, mutuall advice and succour upon all just occations both for preserueing and propagating the truth and liberties of the Gospell and for their owne mutuall safety and wellfare." The Dutch Confederation must have been known to the draftsmen of this document, for its form and spirit reappears in the New England Confederation. A hundred and twenty years later, Franklin drew up a federal form of government for the colonies, which he proposed at the Albany Congress, the text of which shows that he must have used the constitution of the New England Confederation. In 1775 he proposed a plan of federal union to the Continental Congress which resembles his Albany Congress document; and some of its features appear in the Articles of Confederation of 1781.

Meanwhile, Franklin had been in Holland and become acquainted with the Dutch system of government, involving restrictions laid by an instrument of government on states otherwise supposed to be sovereign. From his place on the floor in the Constitutional Convention of 1787, he called attention to factors in the Dutch system which might well be considered by the convention. The idea of a Federal Bill of Rights, binding on all members of the federation and set forth in the earliest amendments to the Constitution, can not be traced to any previous federal system. Some parts of original charters of the English colonies included personal rights, and the idea was closely connected with the English documents of liberty, and the Bills of Rights in state constitutions previous to 1787.

One of the main purposes in all these previous federal experiences was to furnish a tribunal for the settlement of disputes among the member states; and one of the most difficult tasks of the Federal

Convention of 1787 was to create a court with supreme jurisdiction over the operations of the states in fields stated in the Constitution.

#### IV. INTERCOLONIAL EXPERIENCE

Considering Washington's means, his fondness for travel, and his personal connection with English trade and finance, it is remarkable that he never went outside the later established limits of the United States of America except in his brief experience in the Island of Barbados in 1751-1752. To his latest days he kept up a personal relation with Englishmen and with Englishmen who had become Americans, and with Americans who visited England. Many young men from Virginia and other colonies spent several years in England. Once or twice in his life he considered a journey overseas. He was for years in direct touch with the envoys—first unofficial, and then regular—of the United States to foreign countries. No man in the country realized more than he the importance of trade and cultural relations with the mother country. He corresponded with various English people—particularly with Sir Arthur Young, the agriculturist. The great internationalist of the period was Benjamin Franklin, known and admired in both England and France, from whose pen, however, never proceeded a plan of supernational organization, although his plans for federal organization under one sovereignty contained germs of such a development.

Washington was by training and by interest a statesman who recognized the necessities of international harmony. Everybody knows that Washington's only public speeches were made before Congress as inaugurals in 1789 and 1793 and as annual messages. For about 16 years a member of the Virginia Assembly, none of his comembers recorded that he made a speech on the floor. He had, however, a lively part in the discussions of the western frontier. His *Journal* of 1753, which was sent to England as a public document, is really the record of a diplomatic mission. He inaugurated the French and Indian War in 1754 by his attack on Jumonville, also recorded in a journal first printed in French.

Washington throughout his life had close contact with many men who understood international relations, including the English officers in the frontier wars, travelers, and writers of travels, particularly Lord Fairfax, his patron and intimate friend. During the Revolutionary War, he cultivated French officers and civilians of large experience and great political influence. A study of his diaries would probably reveal the names of a hundred men and women of mark whom he met and with some of whom he discussed international affairs. No one, however, has recorded that Washington read any of the treatises on international law, of which there were several during the eighteenth century. Whatever the international history or the public services of the surviving combinations of nations, the

German and Dutch confederations, they were little known to him; and they declined and almost disappeared during his lifetime. The eighteenth century was a period of disregard of small and weak states and of small and weak men. Washington's conception of international law and of international combinations was, therefore, that of a hard-headed, practical man of vast experience in public affairs, but without knowledge of the possibility of an international organization which would limit the authority of the constituent nations, outside of the federal principles of the Articles of Confederation and later Constitution of the United States.

#### V. EXPERIENCE IN INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS DURING THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR

The workings of George Washington's mind were never from the general to the particular. It was not in his makeup to work out a system of thought and then to distribute it over the problems and incidents of his life. His mind was not analytical but constructive. His goal is described in a letter of 1778: "Nothing short of independence, it appears to me, can possibly do. A peace on other terms would, if I may be allowed the expression, be a peace of war."

His school of diplomacy was substantially his own experience with representatives of nations that had elaborate systems of public law. In the controversy between the Colonies and the home country, most of the international precedents were on the side of the British Government. The great international triumph of the United States in the Revolution was the establishment of a relation with the French Government, which was actuated not by any admiration of Washington or love for the English colonists but by the opportunity to weaken Great Britain by aiding in the secession of the most important group of English colonists.

The exigencies of the war kept Washington most of the time away from the Continental Congresses, of which he had been a member in 1774 and 1775. And Congress interfered very little directly with Washington's control of the army in service. From the beginning, he assumed the rights and dignities of a commander of an army in the field. His refusal to accept the official letter of the English commissioners directed to "George Washington, etc." was not merely an assertion of personal dignity but of the rights of the representative of a nation. Both sides remonstrated at occasional failures to observe the etiquette of war. Nevertheless, Washington knew and practised in general the military side of international law.

Likewise, Washington could improvise practices not written in the books. The separation of command between the navy and the army, characteristic of both England and France, was quite ignored by Gen. George Washington from his headquarters in Cambridge when he gave out naval commissions authorizing captures of British





Photograph by George F. Hirschman

"VALLEY FORGE," A MURAL BY DEANE KELLER

This painting is one of a group of fourteen picturing episodes in the life of Washington and forming a frieze in the National Gallery of Art, to commemorate the two hundredth anniversary of his birth. The artist has tried to depict the humane side of Washington, who is shown, bidding good-bye to a wounded soldier and the latter's wife. To the right, soldiers are carrying a sick comrade to a hospital, back of them, a fatigue squad carries wood.

merchantmen. The cargoes of some of those captures made possible the continuance of the Siege of Boston to the surrender point. Congress later organized a navy and formulated its legal status.

It required unusual assurance for Congress to accredit ministers to Spain, France, Holland, Prussia, Austria, Tuscany, and Russia. There is no evidence that Washington intervened in the appointments or suggested instructions; but he held personal correspondence with various of the ministers accredited to foreign powers—particularly Benjamin Franklin.

It is not too much to say that his capture of Boston in 1776 was the most potent argument in securing in France arms and stores, and bringing about the first treaty concluded by the United States of America. The most important immediate fruit of the unrecognized envoys was the coming over of Lafayette, who, without any previous communication with Washington, sought out the American representatives, who were delighted at the purpose of the chivalric young Frenchman to place his life and his fortune and, still more important, his status in the French court at the disposal of the Americans. The international law of that time paid little attention to a change of allegiance by an experienced soldier from one nation to another. Evidently neither Washington nor Congress consulted a textbook in international law as to the right to receive soldiers of fortune.

Washington was on the same footing as the civilians in his intense desire for international alliance on any possible terms, not to include cessions of territory to friendly powers. According to John Adams, the deciding voice in permitting Lafayette to bring the unofficial sympathy of France to Washington was that of the powerful Noailles family, of which Madame Lafayette was a member. They were delighted at the opportunity of giving indirect aid to the enemy of France who had squeezed the French out of eastern North America. Silas Deane, who was the first envoy sent over to France, went to and beyond his powers in promising a major-generalship to the young Frenchman, a promise carried out by Congress.

The relations between the commander in chief and the new major general are bright spots in an international field abounding in vagueness. Lafayette's rank as a commanding officer helped to secure the treaty of alliance between France and the United States in 1778, in which perhaps the most notable incident is the absolute lack of any pledge of territorial indemnity for the French in the peace when obtained, except a guaranty of their West Indian possessions.

The success of the Lafayette episode is the more remarkable because Washington never learned French, must have used translations of the French despatches, and was under obligation to come into personal, though not subordinate, relations with Rochambeau and the French naval commanders. The war was a desperate enterprise

in 1778, and there is no evidence that Washington foresaw the status of the United States in the family of nations. An act of extraordinary judgment and foresight was the placing of young Lafayette in command of one of the American divisions operating with the French land forces at the Siege of Yorktown—the crowning victory of the war; but the relations with the French Fleet and the French Army clearly showed that to the French mind the United States of America was rather a protégé than an ally.

#### VI. THE TREATY OF PEACE (1779–1783)

Washington's sound views on the negotiation of peace were often evidenced in his letters: "We may rely upon it that we shall never have peace till the enemy are convinced that we are in a condition to carry on the war. It is no new maxim in politics that for a nation to obtain peace, or insure it, it must be prepared for war." On the other hand, he appreciated the difficulties of unarmed peace, and again wrote: "There is nothing so likely to produce peace, as to be well prepared to meet an enemy; and from this persuasion, and the effect you justly observe the contrary on our part might have on the mind of the Court of France, and also on that of Spain, I think it would be right for us to hold forth at least every appearance of preparation and vigor and really to do what our abilities and the circumstances of our finances may well justify." He wrote again: "Certain I am, unless Congress speak in a more decisive tone, unless they are vested with powers by the several States competent to the great purposes of war, or assume them as matter of right, and they and the States respectively act with more energy than they hitherto have done, that our cause is lost."

In the final negotiations of peace, Washington had no direct part. His letter to the governors of the States in 1783 was a plea for nationalism, and a warning of the disaster that would come about if the States could not accept a permanent national government. He wrote in 1787: "From the former infatuation, duplicity, and perverse system of British policy, I confess I am induced to doubt everything, to suspect everything." Elsewhere he wrote: "If we are wise, let us prepare for the worst. There is nothing, which will so soon produce a speedy and honorable peace as a state of preparation for war; and we must either do this, or lay our account for patched up and inglorious peace, after all the toil, blood, and treasure we have spent."

He was much interested in the territorial results of the treaty of peace, as is shown by his well-known letters of 1783 relating to the western frontier. By the treaty of peace, the English remained in possession of Canada, contrary to the request of Lafayette to retrieve Montgomery's and Arnold's defeat under the walls of Quebec.

Washington had a modern view as to the seriousness of war: "The maritime resources of Great Britain are more substantial and real,

than those of France and Spain united. Her commerce is more extensive, than that of both her rivals; and it is an axiom, that the nation which has the most extensive commerce will always have the more powerful marine. Were this argument less convincing, the fact speaks for itself. Her progress in the course of the last year is an incontestable proof. . . . In modern wars, the longest purse must chiefly determine the event. I fear that of the enemy will be found to be so. Though the government is deeply in debt, and of course poor, the Nation is rich, and their riches afford a fund, which will not be easily exhausted. Besides, their system of public credit is such, that it is capable of greater exertion than that of any other nation."

#### VII. THE TRANSITION PERIOD (1783-1789)

Washington's expectation of the reception of his own country as a unit among nations is stated in a letter of 1783: "The citizens of America, placed in the most enviable condition, as the sole lords and proprietors of a vast tract of continent, comprehending all the various soils and climates of the world, and abounding with all the necessities and conveniences of life, are now, by the late satisfactory pacification, acknowledged to be possessed of absolute freedom and independency. They are, from this period, to be considered as the actors on a most conspicuous theater, which seems to be peculiarly designated by Providence for the display of human greatness and felicity."

For war the successful general had no fondness. He wrote in 1785: "As the complexion of European politics seems now . . . to have a tendency to peace, I will say nothing of war, nor make any animadversions upon the contending powers; otherwise I might possibly have said, that the retreat from it seemed impossible after the explicit declaration of the parties. My first wish is to see this plague to mankind banished from off the earth, and the sons and daughters of this world employed in more pleasing and innocent amusements, than in preparing implements and exercising them for the destruction of mankind."

In the six years of interlude between the end of the war and the Federal Constitution, no advance was made in international organization either in Europe or in America. So far as the peace referred to Europe, the principal European powers had learned little from the experiences of the American war, had gained no serious territorial advantages, and were no nearer to the establishment of an international system which would obviate the recurring grouping and regrouping of powers and costly wars by land and sea. Europe did not realize how fast the new Republic would go forward, and still less was foreseen the whirlwind of the French Revolution and the emergence of the French military empire.

During this interval, the principal international interest of Washington was in the West. In addition to his journey of 1783 to west-

ern New York, with its suggestion that a canal could be constructed from the Hudson to the Lakes, he interested himself in the interstate question of water communication between the seaboard and the basin of the Ohio, and had a plan of an extensive journey through the West, going down from the source of the Illinois River via the Mississippi to New Orleans, returning by Pensacola. The only foreign issue connected with the West was the tendency of the westerners to establish trade relations with Spanish Louisiana, thus weakening the ties between the East and West. The American merchant marine began to come out of the condition to which it had been reduced by the long war, and a lively slave trade sprang up.

Since no European war was going on, the questions of "free trade and sailor's rights" had not yet come to the front. The treaty had given to the United States of America the status of an independent nation, but had not provided for the revival of the almost unrestricted trade between North America and England which had been enjoyed before the Revolution.

Another troublesome question was the liability of Americans for sums due to British creditors at the outbreak of the Revolutionary War. Washington laid down the proper course in a letter of 1787 that is a classic in international law: "With respect to British debts, I would fain hope, let the eloquence or abilities of any man or set of men be what they may, that the good sense and justice of this State will never suffer a violation of the treaty, or pass acts of injustice to individuals. Honesty in States, as well as individuals, will ever be found the soundest policy."

#### VIII. FOREIGN STATUS OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLIC (1789-1793)

Some writers have endeavored to discover modern ideas as to international organization in the policy and the statements of President Washington from 1789 to 1797, but with little success. The student of international history finds little first-hand material in Washington's Diary, except a few items as to conferences with members of his cabinet or with other persons on the incidents of foreign policy. In 1790 he briefed a letter from George Nicholas on the danger of the westerners forming direct commercial relations with the Spaniards on the lower Mississippi, a subject about which Washington was very anxious. In July, 1790, he was deeply concerned by a communication of Beckwith, aide-de-camp of the Governor of Canada, Lord Dorchester, to the effect that "the cabinet of Great Britain entertained a disposition not only towards a friendly intercourse but towards an alliance with the United States." This was entirely contrary to Washington's views of the international relations of his country. The renewal of war in Europe as an outcome of the French Revolution, and the disturbance of American commerce as a result of the



Photograph by George F. Hirschman

"WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION IN NEW YORK," BY EZRA WINTER

Another panel in the bicentennial frieze in the National Gallery at Washington assembled by the Commission of Fine Arts. The canvas depicts the ceremony of inaugurating George Washington as the first President of the United States of America, on the portico of Federal Hall, New York City, on April 30, 1789.

naval warfare, made it essential that the status of the new Federal Republic in the family of nations should be defined; and the difficulties with the French consular and diplomatic representatives in the United States in 1793 and thereafter compelled an appeal to the principles of international relations and international responsibility, based upon international precedents. In his speech to Congress, November 6, 1792, Washington said: "Observations on the value of peace with other nations are unnecessary. It would be wise, however, by timely provisions, to guard against those acts of our own citizens which might tend to disturb it, and to put ourselves in a condition to give that satisfaction to foreign nations, which we may sometimes have occasion to require from them. I particularly recommend to your consideration the means of preventing those aggressions by our citizens on the territory of other nations, and other infractions of the law of nations, which, furnishing just subject of complaint, might endanger our peace with them."

Washington's general policy as to the relation of the United States to international conflict is set forth in a letter to David Humphreys of 1793: "If it can be esteemed a happiness to live in an age productive of great and interesting events, we of the present age are very highly favored. The rapidity of national revolutions appear no less astonishing, than their magnitude. In what they will terminate is known only to the Great Ruler of events; and, confiding in his wisdom and goodness, we may safely trust the issue to him, without perplexing ourselves to seek for that, which is beyond human ken; only taking care to perform the parts assigned us, in a way that reason and our own consciences approve of.

"All our late accounts from Europe hold up the expectation of a general war in that quarter. For the sake of humanity I hope such an event will not take place; but, if it should, I trust that we shall have too just a sense of our own interest to originate any cause, that may involve us in it. And I ardently wish we may not be forced into it by the conduct of other nations. If we are permitted to improve without interruption the great advantages, which nature and circumstances have placed within our reach, many years will not revolve before we may be ranked, not only among the most respectable, but among the happiest people on this globe. Our advances to these points are more rapid than the most sanguine among us ever predicted. A spirit of improvement displays itself in every quarter, and principally in objects of the greatest public utility, such as opening the inland navigation, which is extensive and various beyond conception, improving the old roads and making new ones, building bridges and houses, and, in short, pursuing those things, which seem eminently calculated to promote the advantage and accommodation of the people at large. Besides these, the enterprises of individuals show at

once what are the happy effects of personal exertions in a country, where equal laws and equal rights prevail."

#### IX. DIFFICULTIES WITH FRANCE (1793-1798)

Outside of Washington's public papers, there is little to be gleaned on his attitude toward the French crisis of 1798. The original resentment of France over Washington's policy of neutrality, which she considered a violation of the treaty of alliance of 1778, was increased by the American commercial treaty of 1794 with Great Britain (Jay treaty), and culminated in a refusal to receive the American envoys. The resentment was also shown in violations of the rights of American neutral trade. Under the administration of Washington's successor, President Adams, preparations were made for war, but except for a few clashes on the sea, it did not reach open hostility. Washington was so clear that the United States had received treatment from France which made war inevitable, that he accepted the appointment of Commander of the American Army. In a letter to Lafayette of December 25, 1798, he stated his policy as to intervention with unmistakable clearness: "That there are many among us, who wish to see this country embroiled on the side of Great Britain, and others, who are anxious that we should take part with France against her, admits of no doubt. But it is a fact, on which you may entirely and absolutely rely, that the governing powers of the country and a large part of the people are truly Americans in principle, attached to the interest of it, and unwilling under any circumstances whatsoever to participate in the politics or contests of Europe; much less, since they have found that France, having forsaken the ground she first took, is interfering in the internal concerns of all nations, neutral as well as belligerent, and setting the world in an uproar. . . .

"On the politics of Europe I shall express no opinion, nor make any inquiry who is right or who is wrong. I wish well to all nations and to all men. My politics are plain and simple. I think every nation has a right to establish that form of government, under which it conceives it shall live most happy; provided it infracts no right, or is not dangerous to others; and that no governments ought to interfere with the internal concerns of another, except for the security of what is due to themselves."

#### X. ADVICE ON NEUTRALITY (1796-1799)

The textbook for those who believe that Washington had a conception or a plan of an international peace organization is his Farewell Address, prepared in collaboration with Hamilton and other statesmen, and using many of Hamilton's phrases. Long in preparation and issued in 1796, it is a plain statement of his convictions both as to peace and war. A selection of his precepts will bring out its



character. He advises his countrymen to be prepared for war by establishing public credit: "One method of preserving it is, to use it as sparingly as possible:—avoiding occasions of expense by cultivating peace, but remembering also that timely disbursements to prepare for danger frequently prevent much greater disbursements to repel it—avoiding likewise the accumulation of debt, not only by shunning occasions of expense, but by vigorous exertions in time of Peace to discharge the debts which unavoidable wars may have occasioned, not ungenerously throwing upon posterity the burthen which we ourselves ought to bear."

Then follows the passage frequently quoted as an evidence that Washington favored some kind of international organization which could be invoked in threatening times to prevent war. The passage is long, and some admonitions and expectations must be left unquoted: "Observe good faith and justice toward all Nations . . . . Cultivate peace and harmony with all . . . . It will be worthy of a free, enlightened, and, at no distant period, a great nation, to give to mankind the magnanimous and too novel example of a People always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence . . . . The experiment, at least, is recommended by every sentiment which ennobles human nature.—Alas! is it rendered impossible by its vices? In the execution of such a plan nothing is more essential than that permanent, inveterate antipathies against particular nations and passionate attachments for others should be excluded; . . . Antipathy in one nation against another disposes each more readily to offer insult and injury, to lay hold of slight causes of umbrage, and to be haughty and intractable, when accidental or trifling occasions of dispute occur. . . . So likewise a passionate attachment of one Nation for another produces a variety of evils.—Sympathy for the favourite nation, facilitating the illusion of an imaginary common interest in cases where no real common interest exists, and infusing into one the enmities of the other, betrays the former into a participation in the quarrels and wars of the latter, without adequate inducement or justification: It leads also to concessions to the favourite Nation of privileges denied to others, which is apt doubly to injure the Nation making the concessions; . . . Excessive partiality for one foreign nation and excessive dislike of another, cause those whom they actuate to see danger only on one side, and serve to veil and even second the arts of influence on the other. . . .

"The great rule of conduct for us, in regard to foreign Nations, is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little *Political* connection as possible. . . . Europe has a set of primary interests, which to us have none, or a very remote relation. . . . Hence therefore it must be unwise in us to implicate ourselves, by artificial ties in the ordinary vicissitudes of her politics, or the ordinary combinations and collisions of her friendships, or enmities. Our detached and distant situation invites and enables us to pursue a dif-

ferent course. . . . Why forego the advantages of so peculiar a situation?—Why quit our own to stand upon foreign ground?—Why, by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe, entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalry, interest, humour, or caprice?—'Tis our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances, with any portion of the foreign world; . . . There can be no greater error than to expect, or calculate upon real favours from Nation to Nation.—'Tis an illusion which experience must cure, which a just pride ought to discard."

#### XI. WILLINGNESS TO NEGOTIATE

His final attitude toward the preservation of peace is shown in a letter to the Secretary of State in 1799 with reference to the difficulties with France: "In plainer words had we said to M. Talleyrand, through the channel of his communication; 'We still are, as we always have been, ready to settle by fair negotiation all differences between the two nations upon open, just, and honorable terms, and it rests with the Directory (after the indignities with which *our* attempts to affect this have been treated, if they are equally sincere), to come forward in an unequivocal manner, and prove it by their acts'; such conduct would have shown a dignified willingness on our part to negotiate, and would have tested their sincerity on the other. Under my present view of the subject, this would have been the course I should have pursued; keeping equally in view the horrors of War, and the dignity of the Government."

Washington lived long enough to see the crisis between the United States and France disappear; and he had no prevision of the coming attacks upon all principles of international law in the Napoleonic era. Yet there was at least one prophet of world peace in his time. He could not have been aware that in the year 1795 there had appeared in the field of European diplomacy a professor in a remote German-speaking university on the shores of the Baltic; for in that year, Immanuel Kant, sage, prophet, and publicist, published to an indifferent world a plan of securing the peace of the world by the goodwill and combination of civilized nations—which, could it have been carried out, would have spared acres of print, and millions of lives.

#### XII. APPLICATION OF WASHINGTON'S DOCTRINE

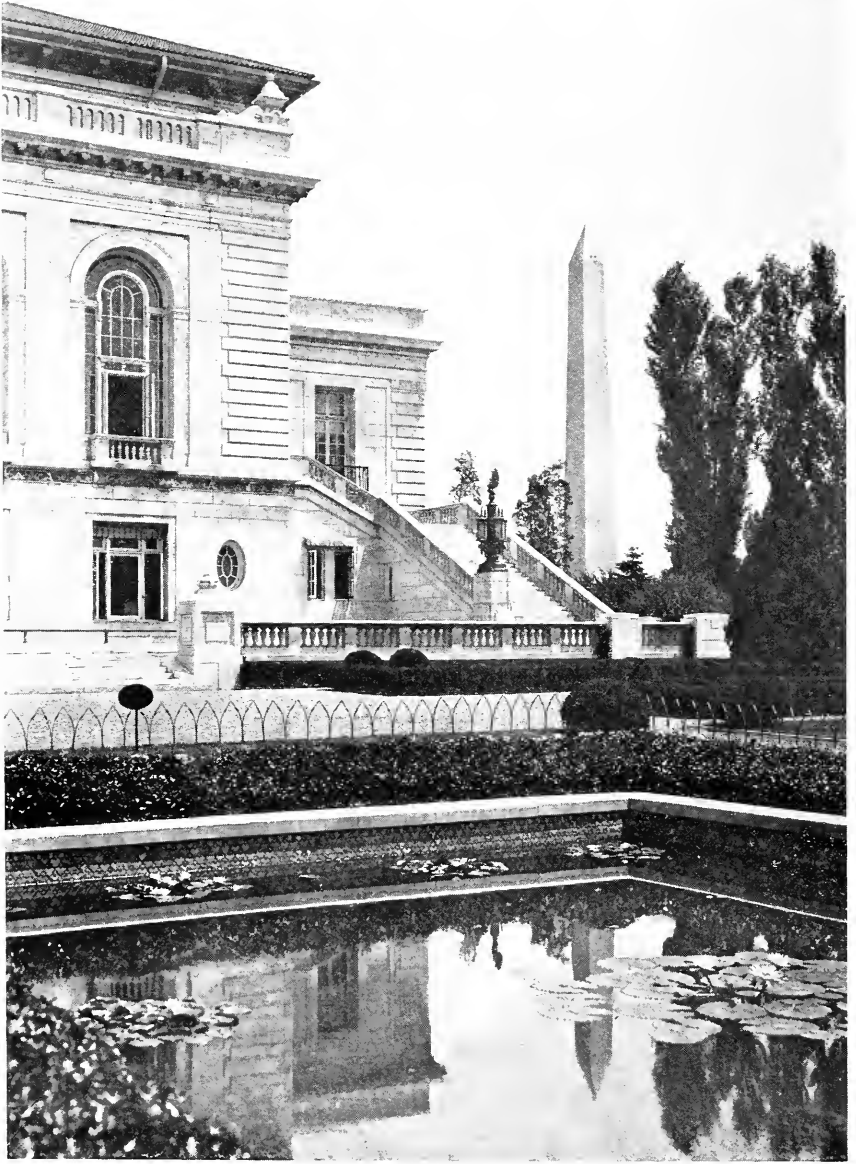
Throughout the eighteenth century, Europe had been the battle ground for a succession of international alliances, involving the colonies of European powers. The English colonists for a century and a half shared in most of the conflicts in which England was a party. In all that period no leading statesman anywhere suggested a permanent organization of powers open to all civilized nations though such plans had been drawn up, notably the so-called Peace

Plan of Henry IV, designed to bring into harmony the central European nations. During a century and a half conceptions of the rights of neutrals and the extent of the rights of belligerents had been recorded and classified as the basis of generalizations by a school of experts in international law.

All those systems were based upon a conception of war as a legitimate operation of unquestionable powers of government, a right of which no nation can be deprived. That theory seems to be contained in Washington's advice to his countrymen to keep out of other people's wars. The American Republic advanced little farther in the direction of world obligations expressed in a world-wide document during the century and a quarter to follow, during which it was involved in three foreign wars, and a great Civil War which was based on the English rather than the American theory of the Revolutionary War.

The Pan American Union was formed in 1890, and this was the first distinct adherence of the United States to the doctrine of international solidarity. The World War brought the nation into a wider attempt at internationalism, which would have been much more impressive had there been only one international group concerned. The modern rapid increase in the destructive powers of war plainly requires some solution of international relations that shall make it impossible for any one nation to set the world on fire. Yet in the present state of warfare, the laws of war, so far as they provide protection to the noncombatant and even the neutral, are no longer effective. Washington's remedy, which was so sensible in the year 1796, is no longer efficacious.

Yet Washington's ideas may be considered, in the light of geographical conditions of his time, as forerunners of present-day internationalism. From the very beginning of his public career he was a fervent apostle of unionism. His pleas for this began during his command of the Virginia frontier in the French and Indian War and reached their climax in his great Farewell Address of 1796. For sectionalism he had no toleration. He was not an internationalist as we now use the term; nevertheless his Americanism of that day was akin to it within the restrictions of geographical conditions and communications. Many feared that the country was too extensive for a successful Union; as Washington himself phrased it, "Is there a doubt whether a common government can embrace so large a sphere?" In his Address he invoked the mutual dependence of the sections, and much for which he then pleaded can be applied to international affairs to-day. Love of peace and justice were predominant traits in Washington. He reflected "with pleasure on the probable influence, that commerce may hereafter have on human manners and society in general. On these occasions I consider how mankind may be connected like one great family in fraternal ties."



THE FORMAL GARDEN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

The Washington monument rises in the background in this view from the garden in the rear of the Pan American Union.

# A TRIBUTE TO WASHINGTON<sup>1</sup>

By RICARDO J. ALFARO

*President of the Republic of Panama*

IT IS with a feeling of genuine satisfaction that I take part in this celebration in honor of the great hero whose memory is revered not only by the people of the United States but by lovers of democracy all over the world.

In the 200 years which have elapsed since the birth of George Washington the world has witnessed great transformations. When Washington was born on the shores of the Potomac there was little difference between the simple, patriarchal, homogeneous life then known to humanity and that which it had lived for centuries upon centuries. There was no steam, no electricity, no machinery, no great industrial development, and only a limited commerce, restricted on the one hand by national monopolies and on the other by the ravages of pirates and privateers. Transportation was limited to that which could be afforded by beasts of burden on land, by vessels at the mercy of winds at sea. Communication between individuals or between nations could not help being as difficult and slow as transportation.

In political life the doctrine of the divine right of kings was unquestioningly accepted everywhere; emperors, kings, and princes exercised a generally absolute power over all lands within reach of their military forces. Africa and Asia, unknown in their greater part, remained extraneous to western civilization. Europe was dominated by age-old dynasties which decided the destinies of nations either by war or by family covenants. America was the property of four European crowns. The English governed the Atlantic colonies, the French Canada, the Portuguese Brazil, and the Spaniards the vast empire which extended from Florida and California to the Straits of Magellan.

Humanity was apparently sunk in a lethargy which gave no reason to believe that great changes were near. Yet in the second half of that tranquil century in which Washington was born, events took place indicating that the human spirit was ripe for the advent of a new era of progress and freedom. The political ideas which had germinated in the brains of a few French thinkers found concrete expression in the Western Hemisphere when the English colonies revolted against

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<sup>1</sup> An address delivered by President Alfaro at a meeting of the American Society held on February 22, 1932, in the *Instituto Nacional*, Panama. This version is based on the reports published in both English and Spanish in "*The Star and Herald*," Panama, February 23 and 24.

the Crown. The dream of the Encyclopedists became a reality when the American Republic emerged from the Revolution as a promise of freedom for oppressed peoples, of democracy for the whole world. And since the establishment of that great Commonwealth whose guiding spirit in war and peace was Washington, what great changes have taken place in history! We have seen the spirit of liberty return from America to France and start the enormous conflagration in which the horrors of feudalism and the institutions of the *Ancien Régime* disappeared forever. From that orgy of blood rose a man who gathered in his powerful hand the forces unchained by the Revolution, loosed them upon an astonished Europe, and erected an empire upon the ruins of the fallen monarchy and the foundations of the First Republic. The new Cæsar humiliated old dynasties, wiped out frontiers, and created new kingdoms, which he distributed among his family; thus a Bonaparte came to sit upon the Spanish throne. This usurpation in turn crystallized political convictions in the Spanish colonies which, after a long and bloody struggle, finally won their independence and established republics whose model was the great and prosperous Union of the North.

Bitter and tenacious was the struggle between the old régimes and the new spirit of nationalism, democracy, and freedom. Through a number of wars and revolutions we see absolutism rise and fall, in one country and another. The Napoleonic Empire crumbled and France changed her form of government four times. Something similar occurred in Spain; and in Latin America monarchical government was abolished forever in Mexico and in Brazil. Where formerly mere geographical expressions had existed, as in the case of Italy and Germany, new, strong, and unified nations came to the front. England became Mistress of the Seas and Russia was recognized as the stronghold of serfdom and the impregnable bulwark of autocracy. New nations broke away from the old Ottoman Empire while historic nations remained absorbed by the apparently indestructible might of the Austrian colossus. Mighty powers weakened while other nations, whose beginnings had been modest, increased in wealth and power to an astonishing degree. And these changes, which took place during the course of the nineteenth century, have been succeeded by new, more radical, and more profound transformations in our twentieth century, when the World War disrupted the economic and social structure of nearly all nations and remade the map of Europe.

In this changing panorama of the political world we can observe the decadence and growth of nations and of peoples, we can follow the rise and fall of their wealth and power. But the curve that never drops is the one marking the ascent of those principles which George Washington espoused and for which he fought. As time has

elapsed, the number of republics has constantly increased and, notwithstanding the many shortcomings of the democratic system, no better substitute nor even one as good, has yet been found.

The historical figure of George Washington is characterized by a moral balance and by a serenity of mind which constitute the greatest gifts of a truly republican ruler. Great as were his virtues as a military leader, as an able statesman, as an indefatigable organizer, and as a valiant fighter, the most admirable feature of his career is that judicious way in which he kept his country and his countrymen from feeling the weight of his superior qualities and advantages, by means of which it would have been easy for him to wield power as long as he desired.

For that reason I venture to say that, from the Latin American point of view, the greatest glory of George Washington consists in having governed with success the first republican nation established in modern times and in having set examples and standards that will last as long as justice and righteousness, honesty and wisdom, unselfishness and patriotism preside over the destinies of free and civilized nations.



Courtesy of the George Washington Bicentennial Commission

#### TOMB OF WASHINGTON AT MOUNT VERNON

From an old lithograph published in aid of the Ladies Mount Vernon Association which took possession of the estate in 1860 with the idea of preserving it as a national shrine. Within the tomb, which was built in accordance with Washington's wishes, are the sarcophagi containing his remains and those of his wife. The stone shafts in front of the tomb mark the graves of Nellie Custis Lewis and her daughter.



FAREWELL LUNCHEON TO THE RETIRING AMBASSADOR OF CUBA, DR. ORESTES FERRARA, MAY 20, 1932

Seated around the table, beginning at the left are: Dr. Luis Manuel Debayle, Chargé d'Affaires of Nicaragua; Dr. Horacio F. Alfaro, Minister of Panama; Señor don Roberto Despradel, Minister of the Dominican Republic; Dr. Adrián Redinos, Minister of Guatemala; Señor don Manuel de Freyre y Santander, Ambassador of Peru; Hon. Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of State of the United States; Dr. Felipe A. Espal, Ambassador of Argentina; M. Dantés Bellegarde, Minister of Haiti; Señor don Luis O. Abelli, Minister of Bolivia; Señor don Roberto D. Meléndez, Special Representative of El Salvador on the Governing Board; Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Señor don Oscar B. Vidal, Chargé d'Affaires of Chile; Dr. Cdeleo Dávila, Minister of Honduras; Dr. Pedro Manuel Arceaya, Minister of Venezuela; Señor R. de Linde e Silva, Ambassador of Brazil; Dr. Orestes Ferrara; Dr. José Manuel Puig Casauranc, Ambassador of Mexico; Dr. Fabio Lozano, Minister of Colombia; Señor don Gouzaldo Zaldumbide, Minister of Ecuador; Señor don Guillermo E. González, Chargé d'Affaires of Costa Rica; and Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union.



# THE ESSENTIALS OF PAN AMERICANISM

## AN ADDRESS BY DR. ORESTES FERRARA

ON May 20, 1932, His Excellency Dr. Orestes Ferrara, retiring Ambassador of Cuba in the United States, now Secretary of State of his own country, was the guest of honor at a farewell luncheon offered him by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. During his stay in Washington Doctor Ferrara played a distinguished rôle not only in his diplomatic post, but also as an official delegate to various Pan American conferences and congresses, and especially as Vice Chairman of the Governing Board.

The eloquent address which Doctor Ferrara made on severing his connection with the Pan American Union, a "school of international ethics," to quote his own words, is his credo of Pan Americanism. Friendship, mutual respect of nations on a basis of equality, the acceptance of the principles of international law, especially as they lead to the pacific settlement of inter-American disputes, are, he believes, ideals which guide the Republics of this hemisphere in their relations with each other. These views were expressed in response to the remarks of the Hon. Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Governing Board, who said:

We have come together to-day to do honor to our distinguished colleague, the Ambassador of Cuba, who is about to leave us to assume the heavy responsibilities of Secretary of State in the Cabinet of President Machado. Our gratification at the high honor which has come to him is tinged with a deep feeling of regret that we are to be deprived of his counsel and companionship in the work of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. As a member of the Board and as its vice chairman, he has never wavered in his enthusiasm and devotion to the purposes for which the Union was founded. During his stay in Washington, he has won the confidence and affection of all those who have been privileged to come into close contact with him. I feel certain that I am giving expression to what is in your mind when I tender to him our sincere thanks for the important service which he has rendered to the Pan American Union during his stay in Washington.

To-day marks the thirtieth anniversary of the installation of the first independent government of Cuba and it is a happy circumstance that we have assembled on this day to honor Doctor Ferrara. We extend to our colleague, who will soon be the Secretary of State of his country, our most cordial felicitations, combined with the warmest wishes for a full measure of success in the fulfillment of the important duties entrusted to him by the President of Cuba.

Doctor Ferrara then paid his impressive tribute to Pan Americanism in the following words:

Permit me to express my thanks for this compliment to me by my colleagues of the Governing Board, and to say that I am profoundly affected by the cordial words of our chairman, the Secretary of State of the United States. I do not

take credit to myself, nevertheless, because of the importance of this occasion and the presence here of so many distinguished colleagues, nor because of the chairman's phrases, since I know that everything is due to the charming kindness which governs your lives and to the habitual expression of your innate courtesy.

My work on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union has been modest and my activities limited; in the balance which might now be struck upon my retirement, there remain in my favor only the enthusiasm and faith which have strengthened me during all the time I have cooperated with you.

I can not deny that I leave the Pan American Union with great regret. This is not because of the contribution which I might continue to bring to our common task, but because of the influence which the Union has exercised upon the temper of my mind, modifying and improving it.

Indeed, it is my duty to state at this time, when I cease to belong to the central representative body of the American nations, that the practice of Pan Americanism has elevated my international principles. My studies in the diplomacy of the so-called great periods, my convictions with respect to the methods of defending the interests of one's own State, as well as my opinions of the public men of the past, have been totally revised. A fresh and vigorous breeze has swept away many ideas which seemed to me incontrovertible, ideas which my mind then, as now, considered reprehensible, but which I regarded with the respect paid to the inescapable. In this atmosphere of ours, I have seen in actual practice that moral integrity and intellectual integrity are not incompatible in international matters.

This confession is a tribute of gratitude which, on taking my departure, I pay to the Union of which I have been a member.

Pan Americanism to-day is, in my opinion, not merely a continental institution but, and I should almost say chiefly, a notable step in the progress of ideas and in the improvement of our collective life. It has exiled from international procedure secret agreements, previous understandings and *combinazioni*, as Machiavelli called them, by which a well-organized minority could overwhelm the majority in conferences and congresses. Under its influence, we have seen every individual pact fit into the general whole. Every bloc, although based on similarity of interests, has been considered a practice of questionable morality. Secret diplomacy, so difficult to banish from world affairs, has been abolished for many years on American soil. A real equality of States, large and small, has arisen under the Pan American aegis, and our gatherings give the impression that the strong recognize it as beneficial to themselves that all should enjoy high international standing and prestige, for only thus will all have the deep sense of responsibility indispensable to the general good.

The collective labors of the Americas have placed international law in the field of ethics, and have taken into consideration the fact that there exists a higher principle than sanctions, a principle based on the universal condemnation and repudiation of deeds injurious to the community of nations. It was in Pan American assemblies that the recourse to war, formerly considered the supreme expression of sovereignty and to-day happily abolished, was first stricken by responsible powers from the law of nations.

The policy of the "balance of power," which colored international life during all the last century and the beginning of the present, was never accepted in America; and the system of alliances, although practiced with disinterested motives and for the common good, could not survive the first obstacles encountered. Pan Americanism had its origin in an aggregation of free and equal nations, with no intermediaries between the national unit and the continental whole, and it still maintains this basic principle intact. Those who prophesied that chaos would result from this international society of free and equal members were as mistaken as those who believed, when modern democracy was born, that it would

inevitably descend to anarchy because of the absence of dominating leaders and dominated masses.

An international structure conforming more closely to the ideas of general good and general usefulness does not necessarily presuppose perfection. Conflicts of interests exist and will continue to exist as long as mankind rules our planet, but the results of such conflicts are weakened; the solution is found not in the threatening and arrogant diplomacy of other times, nor in political or economic aggression, but in the application of the principles of justice, which brings everything controversial within the field of law. We may claim with pride that even in cases of century-old disputes over American territorial questions when the parties, influenced by inflamed public opinion, not unnaturally lose sight of all the different and complex aspects of the problem under discussion, of the pros and cons to be weighed before reaching any solution, the proposal to maintain friendly relations at any cost encourages them to accept the friendly, sincere, and scrupulously impartial cooperation of the whole continent.

In international affairs it must be recognized that this part of the world has set history a new course and opened a new horizon to law. On the basis of the evolution of internal public law, Pan Americanism has proved that the interest of the strong, to give this term its literal meaning, is not in domination but in general cooperation, in reciprocal good will, in common effort for the welfare of all, in friendly cooperation.

My stay of more than five years among you has given me the opportunity of attending this school of international ethics, in which these principles are daily observed.

You can therefore understand my deep gratitude.

Distinguished colleagues: Although distance may separate us as we continue our course in life, the ties of friendship created during a long period of joint labors are imperishable, especially when one has had the good fortune of relations with statesmen of your ability and attainments. In any position where my Government may place me to serve my country, I shall cherish, with the memory of the years which we have spent together in this Capital, the friendship which to-day unites us.

Mr. Chairman, I can not tell you, without perhaps embarrassing you by paying you the tribute which you well deserve, how pleasant I have found it to serve my Government as its representative to yours. Permit me to-day, when I am on the eve of assuming a post like that of Your Excellency's, to tell you that I have closely followed your labors and admired your always frank and correct attitude. A clear mind, an alert spirit, a quick comprehension of others' customs, a kindly interpretation of facts and ideas, are the best qualities a Secretary of State can have, and these qualities Your Excellency possesses. It is my ardent desire that in the future, as in the present, they should continue to exert the same influence that I now feel as I follow your steps and admire your success, so that I may successfully perform the duties of the new position entrusted to me. Before concluding, gentlemen, I desire to express to the Director General, Dr. L. S. Rowe, my warm friendship and gratitude. While our stay in this institution is but transitory, he remains here permanently, animating it with his spirit and quickening it with his enthusiasm. As Dante said of Pier delle Vigne, so I shall say of Doctor Rowe, that he holds the two keys of the Pan American heart. To his able collaborator, Dr. Esteban Gil Borges, I again express my cordial admiration, and to all the officials of this institution I extend my sincere good wishes.

Permit me, in closing, to express to you my fervent desire that in the new position which I am to hold, I may have the privilege of serving the cause of Pan Americanism, the cause of progress and of peace, with a zeal and a faith consonant with its high ideals.

# THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

A LETTER BY JOHN BASSETT MOORE, LL. D.<sup>1</sup>

JOHN L. MERRILL, Esq.,

*President, The Pan American Society,*

*67 Broad Street, New York, N. Y.*

DEAR MR. MERRILL: A mere expression of regret over my absence from the celebration of Pan American Day would do injustice to my feelings. Ever since 1885, when my first service in the Department of State, at Washington, began, I have taken a deep interest and often an active part in the conduct of our relations with the American countries; and as the result of long and varied associations, official and personal, I entertain for the peoples of our sister States not only an abiding sentiment of respect and good will, but also an ardent desire for the perpetuation and development of the ideal of Pan Americanism.

We live to-day in a world racked and torn by the passions inflamed by a great war and perpetuated by the peace by which the war was nominally ended. In consequence, we have had new wars and rumors of wars, until we have at length reached the stage at which professed apostles of peace, aghast at the prospect, have nothing better to offer than the frantic proposal to avert armed conflicts by equipping our peace pacts with artificial teeth and claws, with which, under the euphemistic guise of "economic sanctions," they may bite and scratch their way to universal concord and brotherly love.

From this fantastic conception, indifferent alike to the teachings of history and the daily manifestations of human nature, we turn with grateful relief to the International Union of American Republics, formed more than 40 years ago for the purpose of cementing relations of friendship between the independent nations of America and promoting the cause of peace with justice. As a human institution, it naturally has not achieved perfection. It has not prevented the occasional commission of acts which we could not unite in com-

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<sup>1</sup> This letter, which is self-explanatory, is here published by courtesy of the writer and of the Pan American Society of the United States, of which Judge Moore is honorary president. It will be recalled that since 1913 he has been a member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration, The Hague. Among the many other well-merited distinctions conferred on this eminent jurist and diplomat is that of having been elected in 1921 one of the 11 judges who composed the Permanent Court of International Justice on its organization. Judge Moore resigned from the Court in 1928. He is now editing "International Adjudications, Ancient and Modern, History and Documents, together with mediatorial reports, advisory opinions and the decisions of domestic commissions on international claims," of which four volumes have appeared.—Editor.

mending as exemplifications of the ideal which it raised in the western world. But there can be no doubt that through the conferences for which it provided, and its permanent official organ, the Pan American Union, it has accomplished results of the highest beneficence not only to the nations of America but to the world as a whole. Based upon the principle of conciliation combined with the mutual recognition of national rights and aspirations, it has repeatedly averted the calamities of war and brought about the peaceful settlement of serious disputes.

No infatuation can be greater than the supposition that war, which is itself simply a contention by force, can be prevented by a union of nations for the use of force. War, even though peace be its professed object, is waged for victory; and its consequences may bring disaster to victor and vanquished alike.

In the last analysis, the preservation of peace must ever depend upon the propensities and desires of peoples and of those by whom their affairs are administered. We celebrate this year the bicentennial of the birth of George Washington, one of the wisest men and greatest characters the world has ever known, who, although now often dubbed by peddlers of millennial devices an "isolationist," was, as a dispenser of justice and good will, an internationalist in the most practical and most exalted sense. When, in his immortal Farewell Address, he adjured his countrymen to observe good faith and justice toward all nations, to cultivate peace and harmony with all, and particularly to avoid the attachments and antipathies that tend to make a nation a slave to its partialities and its passions, he preached nothing that he had not practiced in his conduct of foreign affairs. Conceding to all independent states equality before the law, he made to the improvement of international relations contributions of far-reaching and incalculable value, not the least of which was the revival of the practice of international arbitration, which recurrent wars in Europe had for two centuries caused to fall into disuse. Recalling to-day his precepts and his deeds, we do well to acclaim him as an apostle of the spirit and purpose of Pan Americanism.

Very faithfully yours,

(Signed)

JOHN BASSETT MOORE.

# A MESSENGER OF GOOD WILL

## THE LAUNCHING OF THE S. S. "SANTA PAULA", GRACE LINE (PANAMA MAIL SERVICE)

EXCERPTS OF AN ADDRESS

By L. S. ROWE, PH. D., LL. D.

*Director General of the Pan American Union*

THE launching of the steamship *Santa Paula* possesses a significance far deeper than the addition of another splendid vessel to the service of inter-American commerce. In a broader sense, it marks a step in that larger Pan American movement which means so much to the progress and prosperity of the entire continent.

I have had the privilege of witnessing, almost from its inception, the great and significant movement for the development of closer communication between the nations of America. When a little over 25 years ago I made my first trip to South America, I was compelled to go to England in order to find a vessel that would take me to Rio de Janeiro. When I contrast this situation with the fine service to every section of Latin America that exists to-day, I begin to appreciate the great advance that we have made in this respect during the last quarter of a century.

It is a source of gratification to every one interested in our relations with the countries of Latin America that tourist travel to Mexico, Central America, and to the countries of South America is steadily increasing with each year. This splendid group of vessels, to which the *Santa Paula* represents the latest addition, will now shorten by 20 per cent the period of time necessary to reach the west coast ports of Costa Rica, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Guatemala, and Mexico. When our people fully appreciate the great natural beauty of these countries and the unending interest which they offer to the tourist, I feel certain that the volume of tourist travel will be increased many fold. . . .

There is, however, a still deeper significance to the launching of the great messenger of good will which we have just witnessed. It is another indication of the new position which the United States occupies in world affairs and especially in relation to the 20 Republics to the south of us. They are destined to be the best customers for our manufactured products, and this, combined with the fact that we have over \$6,000,000,000 invested in their industries and their securi-

ties, is but one indication of the fact that our destiny is closely bound up with theirs. In a larger sense we are quite as deeply interested in their progress and prosperity as in our own. Probably the greatest problem to-day confronting the people of the United States is to bring their national thought into harmony with their new international position. We still cling to outworn doctrines with a tenacity which means a real obstacle to our own prosperity. We still give obedience to outworn shibboleths of the eighteenth century and we still nurse the mistaken belief that national prosperity can best be secured by reducing our purchases from foreign nations to a minimum. It is this lack of adjustment of national thinking to our influence as a great world power which is at the root of many of our difficulties. When we begin to appreciate that our present international position calls for new standards of public opinion, when we are conscious of the fact that to-day the prosperity of every nation of America is a matter of deep concern to us and adjust our policy accordingly, then, and not until then, will the great steamship lines, of which the *Santa Paula* is such a proud representative, be assured of the prosperity which they so richly deserve.

In again extending to you congratulations on the launching of this splendid messenger of good will, I combine therewith the confident hope and expectation that she will also be the messenger of prosperity.



# WASHINGTON'S INFLUENCE ON THE EARLY SPIRIT OF INDEPENDENCE IN BRAZIL

By ANNIE D'ARMOND MARCHANT

*Assistant Editor, BOLETIM da União Pan-Americana*

Heroic deeds, especially when inspired by the sacred desire for liberty, make themselves felt wherever noble spirits are found. The liberators of humanity can not, if they will, confine the results of their actions within the narrow limits of their own countries. Their names echo threateningly in the ears of tyrants and bring encouragement to the oppressed; they carry inspiration and hope to the champions of the cause of liberty—heroes all, whether victorious and glorified, or vanquished and martyred.

Thus the name and fame of Washington resounded throughout the world of his time. The successful conclusion of the American Revolution shook the hold of Portugal and Spain on their colonies in the New World. In fact, surprise was expressed in Europe that Brazil did not follow the example of her northern sister and sever the bonds uniting her to the mother country. However, shortly after Americans had won their freedom there was a handful of courageous and idealistic men ready to sacrifice everything in the cause of Brazilian independence, but since the time was not ripe for the attempt, it brought its leader not the laurel wreath of victory but the martyr's crown of thorns. Therefore later generations of Brazilians have always held in especial reverence the memory of the first movement for their independence, and especially that of its chief figure, Tiradentes.

In France, where the struggle of the American colonies had awakened great enthusiasm and received substantial support, a group of Brazilian students were fired by the magic names of Washington and Lafayette, symbols of independence and glory. A young man named José Joaquim Maia talked and corresponded, under the pseudonym of Vendek, with Thomas Jefferson, then representative of his country in France; in one letter he said: "We have decided to follow the striking example which you have just set us, and therefore to break our chains and renew our liberty."

The aspirations of Maia and his companions for the liberty of their country were transmitted by one of them across the sea to other idealists in the Captaincy of Minas Geraes, where high-spirited youths



and men of mature age—lawyers, officers, poets, and priests—united to draw up bases for the establishment of a new republic and to launch their supreme attempt.

In the secret conclaves which these knights errant managed to hold in Ouro Preto, the ideal which inspired their souls, which their minds never relinquished, was that of the successful revolution in the United States. What the English colonies had accomplished Brazil also could do. A Brazilian liberator would arise, as Washington had done, to free the colony. All the information about the American Revolution which they could obtain was absorbed with the greatest eagerness; a compilation of laws of the United States, printed

#### TIRADENTES

Second Lieut. Joaquim José da Silva Xavier, better known as "Tiradentes," was the leader of the group of patriots who, inspired by the successful revolution under Washington, began the first movement for Brazilian independence



in French, was considered a veritable treasure. They set about translating these statutes, as well as several books in English dealing with the subject so dear to their hearts.

A flag was devised for the new republic. How much affection, how much idealism, must have gone into the designing of a banner to represent the inspiration of that handful of heroes! A white background was chosen, on which appeared a symbolic figure breaking fetters. The motto unanimously adopted was *Libertas quæ sera tamen*—Liberty, although late.

The uprising never actually came to a head. The Portuguese authorities learned in 1789 that subversive plans were under way,

and arrested more than 30 conspirators. Their leader was Second Lieut. Joaquim José da Silva Xavier, better known as Tiradentes. He stood out among his associates not by reason of wealth, learning, or social position, for others exceeded him in these, but because of his devotion to the cause, his fiery energy, and his brave and generous heart. He is remembered with affection for the great heroism with which he took upon himself all responsibility for the conspiracy, thus saving his companions from death, for the loyalty, courage, and calmness with which he bore himself throughout the whole great tragedy, and for the serenity with which he went to the gallows after three long years of incarceration. Fate did not even allow him a tomb for his final resting place, for his remains were dishonored by order of the authorities. The other members of the band were condemned to a cruel imprisonment on the African coast.

It may be asked whether this movement toward independence was of sufficient importance to merit the severe measures which Governor Barbacena took against it. The object of the movement was, of course, to establish a republic, modeled after the United States; the emancipation of slaves was also discussed and other liberal ideas were advocated. Since in Minas Geraes, which suffered under an oppressive rule, there was an especially rebellious spirit, it was justifiable to count upon popular support for a revolutionary uprising which, once started, might reasonably be expected to spread to the Captaincies of Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro. Furthermore, there was a prospect that, as in the case of the United States, the European powers would not remain inactive, and it was hoped that the new Republic in the north would aid the movement. Therefore it may be concluded that the enterprise was by no means chimerical.<sup>1</sup>

With the passage of the years, Brazil became first an independent empire and then a republic. The cordiality between the countries of Washington and Tiradentes has become traditional. The history of their relations is full of acts testifying to the sincere and lasting friendship dating from the establishment of Brazilian independence, recognition of which the United States was the first nation to accord. But, in the present-day multiplicity of common interests, let us not forget their distant beginnings in the days of Tiradentes, nor the idealism which gave rise to the first intangible but indissoluble connection between the United States and Brazil.

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<sup>1</sup> This is the opinion expressed by Lucio José dos Santos in his work on *A Inconfidência Mineira: Papel de Tiradentes na Inconfidência Mineira*. Sao Paulo, 1927. The same work is the general authority for this account.

# WASHINGTON AT THE CENTENARY OF BOLÍVAR<sup>1</sup> STATUE AND MEMENTOS IN CARACAS

By ARÍSTIDES ROJAS

IT may be inquired why, during the celebration of the Centenary of Bolívar in 1883, a statue of Washington was erected in the city where the first cry of the South American revolution was heard. In the period dedicated to national gratitude, when hundreds of cities raised their voices in praise of the warrior who freed Greater Colombia, what idea did the patriarch of the United States symbolize among us?

For the first time in a city of Spanish origin, the effigy of the modern Cincinnatus was erected as a bond between two nations of different race, customs, and language. It was a symbol of alliance, because Washington was not a stranger among us; he was the father of the whole American fatherland, the creator of the Republic in the New World. Both Americas, united by common glories at the altar of gratitude, honored Washington in the birthplace of Bolívar. . . .

The erection of a statue of Washington at such a time was not only a tribute to the glory of the illustrious founder of the Republic but also a just homage to the great nation which amazes the world with its renown, its industry, and its conquests of civil power. When Washington founded republican government in the New World, he bequeathed his virtues as a citizen and a statesman not only to the country where he was born and which was the theater of his triumphs: he gave them also to the whole human race, which has proclaimed him honest and just, the equal of the greatest. On this account his fellow citizens have summarized his worth in the eloquent phrase: "First in the hearts of his countrymen." . . .

It was on the very fields where Washington won his laurels that Miranda, the friend of Hamilton, Fox, and Lafayette, began the work of South American emancipation. The banner planted by Miranda in 1806 on the Corian<sup>2</sup> coast—where, for the first time, the name *Colombia* was heard—was the same one which Bolívar bore on the

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<sup>1</sup> Revised translation of *Washington en el Centenario de Bolívar*. "World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago. The United States of Venezuela in 1893." Published by order of the Government of Venezuela. New York. This essay is here reprinted to recall the historical connection of Washington and Bolívar through Lafayette.—EDITOR.

<sup>2</sup> *I. e.*, The coast of Venezuela. It was at Coro, on the Gulf of Venezuela, that Miranda landed with the ill-fated expedition of 1806, which started from New York and which included about 200 Americans.



Courtesy of Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya

#### OBSERVANCE OF THE WASHINGTON BICENTENNIAL IN CARACAS, VENEZUELA

The Minister of Foreign Relations of Venezuela, Dr. Pedro Itriago Chacón, and high officials of the Venezuelan Government placed a floral offering at the statue of George Washington on February 22, 1932. Addresses were made by Dr. José Gil Fortoul, Ex-President of Venezuela, and Mr. Rudolf Dolge, President of the Venezuelan Chapter of the Pan American Society. This monument, dedicated in 1883, was the first erected in honor of Washington in Spanish America.

fields of Boyaca and Carabobo, and with which he finally reached the heights of Cuzco and Potosi.

There is here a fitting compensation. Many towns of the United States bear the name of Bolívar, and grateful Venezuela awaited the centenary of the Liberator to erect in his birthplace a statue of Washington, to be handed down from generation to generation that we might become familiar with the name of the patriarch and founder of republican government in the New World. Gratitude was thus added to the sentiments of international brotherhood.

When the Venezuelan revolution began in 1810, it was from the United States of America that we received our first war material. If the successors of Washington could not then recognize our independence, their sympathies were with us and enthusiastic citizens

helped us as years before they had helped Miranda. Two years later a great catastrophe, the earthquake of 1812, overthrew nearly all the cities of Venezuela, and to the misfortunes of war were added misery, hunger, and death. When the news of this disaster reached the United States, the Congress of that Republic unanimously decreed that five ships loaded with flour should be sent to Venezuela to be distributed among the neediest. A celebrated traveler, Humboldt, on recounting this deed, describes it in the following eloquent words: "Such generous help was received with the liveliest gratitude, and this solemn act of a free nation, this demonstration of national interest, of which our ancient European civilization shows few recent examples, seemed a precious assurance of the mutual good feeling which should always unite the peoples of the two Americas."

After many trials and sacrifices, the Revolution, which failed twice, was ultimately successful; from victory to victory Bolívar bore the banner of Colombia to the snowy peaks and highest inhabited regions of the Andes. An unexpected and fortunate incident then created a fresh bond of union between the two Americas and their inhabitants.

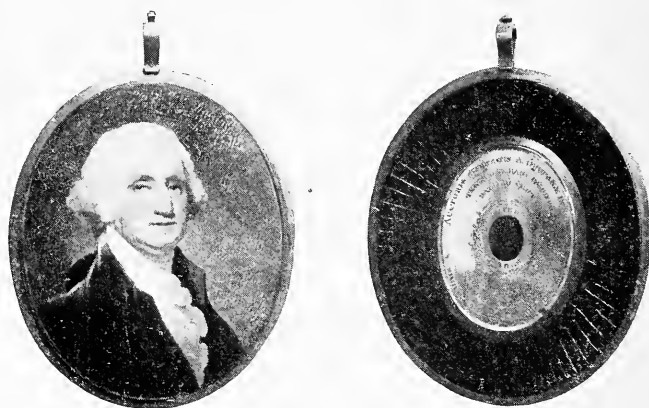
One of the founders of the United States was expected to visit that great Republic. In 1824 a unanimous vote of Congress had authorized President Monroe to issue an invitation to General Lafayette, in the name of the nation. . . . On the 15th of August, after long years of absence, Lafayette landed in New York, to view the scene of his former glory. Is there a pen which can describe the ovation which welcomed him? . . . Lafayette visited all the States of the Union, and in every one he was enthusiastically received. From the moment he touched American soil until he departed, his journey was one long triumphal procession. In December, 1824, Congress presented to its illustrious guest \$200,000 in gold and 2,000 acres of land as a small offering from the country of Washington in recognition of his services. . . .

Was there any mention of Bolívar during these festivities, something to show that the events which had just occurred in South America were known and appreciated? The history of the first years of Colombia, the sanguinary character of the struggle, the sensation which the emancipation of a great continent rightly caused in the civilized world, all this was familiar to the people of the United States. Americans had followed from afar all the scenes of the drama, and during the triumphal tour of Lafayette, in 1824 and 1825, they heard of its glorious last act—the victory of Junin, the decisive battle of Ayacucho, and the surrender of Callao. By that time the name of Bolívar had already become celebrated in history, and the people of the United States gave him without hesitation the honorable title of "The Washington of South America."

More significant events were to follow. At the splendid banquet offered by Congress to General Lafayette in Washington, Henry Clay spoke of Bolívar as follows:

While we are peacefully enjoying, in the midst of abundance and security, the benefits of the free institutions founded by the bravery and patriotism of our forefathers and of their valiant companions here present, whilst calling to mind with freedom and satisfaction the memory of our Revolution, can we forget that our neighbors and friends on this same continent are now struggling to obtain that same freedom and independence which amongst ourselves has been so fortunately secured? No nation, no generous and disinterested Lafayette, has come to their assistance; alone and without help they have sustained their glorious cause, trusting to its justice, and with the assistance only of their bravery, their deserts, and their Andes. . . .

Clay concluded by proposing the following toast: "*To General Bolívar, the Washington of South America, and to the Republic of*



WASHINGTON MEDALLION PRESENTED TO BOLÍVAR

This gift from George Washington P. Custis to Bolívar, transmitted by General Lafayette, is treasured by the Venezuelan Government. It is the only medallion or decoration which appears on statues of Bolívar.

*Colombia.*" More than 600 representatives of the Anglo-American race rose to their feet on that festive occasion and, lifting their glasses, exclaimed as one man in the presence of Lafayette: "*To Bolívar, the Washington of South America, and to the Republic of Colombia.*" With these cordial and eloquent words the great Republic greeted the young nations of South America which Bolívar had just created.

Before departing for Europe, Lafayette visited the tomb of Washington at Mount Vernon. He wished once again to return to the place where the American Cincinnatus spent the last years of his life, and where his mortal remains now rest. In the presence of the glorious ashes of Washington, Lafayette received from the great man's family, among other gifts, the ribbon of the Order of Cincinnati which the Liberator of the United States had used. He further agreed with heartfelt pride to serve as an intermediary for presenting

to Bolívar a gift which Washington's family wished to make to the Liberator of South America. This consisted of a gold medal which the American people had presented on one of the anniversaries of independence to the Father of their Country and a medallion containing a portrait of Washington and a lock of his hair. The medallion now belongs to the Republic; it was donated by Gen. Guzmán Blanco, President of Venezuela, who had received it from Bolívar's nephew, Señor Pablo S. Clemente. It is elliptical in shape, 7 centimeters long and 5 wide. On the obverse appears a miniature of Washington by Steward after the large picture painted by the celebrated Field; on the reverse is a blue enamel background in the center of which appears under a small crystal cover a lock of the modern Cincinnatus. Around the crystal the following inscription is engraved on a gold border:

*Auctoris Libertatis Americanae in Septentrione hanc Imaginem dat Filius ejus Adoptatus Illi qui gloriam similem in Austro adeptus est.* (This portrait of the founder of liberty in North America is presented by his adoptive son to him who has won equal glory in South America.)

Thus it was that the family of Washington in the name of the United States, evoking the glorious shade of its illustrious leader, the Father of his Country, manifested its admiration for the Washington of South America. But what imparted special character to this gift is the fact that it was Lafayette, so celebrated in the annals of modern liberty, who was entrusted with the pleasing duty of transmitting the precious souvenir to Bolívar. The Liberator received from Lafayette the following letter through the Colombian Legation in Washington:

WASHINGTON CITY, September 1, 1825.

TO THE PRESIDENT-LIBERATOR:

SIR: The family of General Washington could not have shown in a better way their appreciation of my filial and religious affection for his memory. To-day a most honorable duty has been entrusted to me. It was with the utmost pleasure I recognized the exact resemblance of the portrait, for I would rather offer this record of my fatherly friend to General Bolívar than to any man living or to any of those who are famed in history. What more can I say to the great citizen whom America has saluted with the title of Liberator, a name confirmed by the Old and the New Worlds, and who, while endowed with a power equal to his disinterestedness, yet bears in his heart the unreserved love of liberty and a sincere affection for the Republic. However, the public testimonials of your kindness and esteem authorize me to send you the personal congratulations of a veteran in our common cause. I am soon to take my departure for another hemisphere, but I shall follow with sympathy the glorious termination of your labors and the course of that solemn Assembly of Panama, in which will be consolidated and completed all the principles and all the interests of the independence, liberty, and policy of America.

Accept, Mr. President-Liberator, the homage of my profound and respectful admiration.

LAFAYETTE.

With this courteous letter the Liberator had a dispatch from the Minister Plenipotentiary of Colombia in Washington. . . . These letters did not reach the Liberator until March 26, 1826, six days after he had answered an earlier letter of Lafayette, recommending one of his countrymen. Bolívar, however, had already heard through the newspapers that the gift was being forwarded to him by the illustrious French general. In his answer, he did not hesitate, therefore, to refer as follows to the present he had not yet received:

LIMA, March 20, 1826.

GENERAL: I have had the honor of seeing for the first time the characters traced by that hand which has conferred such benefits on the New World. I owe this honor to Colonel Mercier, who has handed me your much appreciated letter of October 15 of last year. Through the public newspapers I have learned with the greatest pleasure that you have had the kindness to honor me with a gift of precious guerdons from Mount Vernon. Through your hands I am to receive the portrait of Washington, a relic of his person, and one of the tokens of his glory, in the name of the family of the great citizen, the first-born son of the New World. No words can express the full value which my heart attaches to this present, and to the motives which occasioned it and which are so glorious for me. The honor conferred upon me by the family of Washington is greater than any I could have hoped for, even in imagination, because Washington, presented by Lafayette, is the crown of all human rewards. He was the noble promoter of social reform, and you are the citizen hero, the champion of liberty, with one hand serving America and with the other the Old World.

What mortal could really be worthy of the honor which you and Mount Vernon have conferred on me? My confusion is equal to the immensity of the gratitude which I offer you, joined with the respect and veneration which every man owes to the Nestor of Liberty.

With the utmost consideration I am your respectful admirer,

BOLÍVAR.

With the interesting letter of Lafayette, Bolívar received one from George Washington P. Custis, in which the latter forwarded to him the medal which the city of Williamsburg, the former capital of Virginia, had presented to Washington. . . . On the obverse is engraved the spirit of American liberty, represented by wisdom and bravery, with the following legend: *Virtute et labore florent Respublicae. Civitas de Williamsburg.* On the reverse appears an armed warrior who, having put aside his shield, is piercing with a lance a crowned lion which is attacking him. Above the warrior shines the American constellation representing the thirteen States. . . . The gift of this medal had a national rather than a private significance because it formed a close tie between the two illustrious representatives of the Republican cause on the American continent. . . .

Two months after replying to Lafayette, Bolívar wrote to Washington P. Custis from Lima, on May 25, the day on which he received the noble gift, a courteous letter in which he said: "The portrait of



Genl. W<sup>m</sup> Washington

Philadelphia June 25<sup>th</sup> 1775.

My Dearest

As I am within a few minutes of leaving this city, I could not think of departing from it without dropping you a line, especially as I do not know whether it may be in my power to write again till I get to the camp at Boston. I go fully trusting in that providence, which has been more bountiful to me than I deserve & in full confidence of a happy meeting with you some time in the fall. I have no time to add more as I am surrounded with company to take leave of me. I retain an inalterable affection for you which neither time or distance can change my best love to Jack and Molly I regard for the rest of the family - concludes me with the warmest truth and sincerity

Your affectionate Son  
G<sup>o</sup> Washington

WASHINGTON MEMENTO IN THE HOUSE OF BOLÍVAR, CARACAS

This copy of a letter from General Washington to his wife was sent to Bolívar by Eliza Parke Custis, granddaughter of Mrs. Washington. Her letter of transmission stated, in part: "To General D'Evereux I confide these sacred memorials of my adored parents. I have ever regarded him as an adopted brother, and deem the ardent friend and Soldier of Liberty, worthy to relieve (sic) these precious relics, and transmit them to Bolívar the Liberator of Colombia."

the principal benefactor of the continent of Columbus, presented by the noble descendant of his illustrious family through the citizen hero, General Lafayette, would be a sufficient reward for the merit of the greatest man in the universe."

The family of Washington, to express their admiration for the glory and virtues of Bolívar, presented him with yet another gift. Through General D'Evereux, Mrs. Eliza Parke Custis sent an autograph of Washington to Bolívar on November 8, 1828. It was the letter in which he bade good-by to his wife before leaving for war in 1775. . . . [See reproduction on p. 513.]

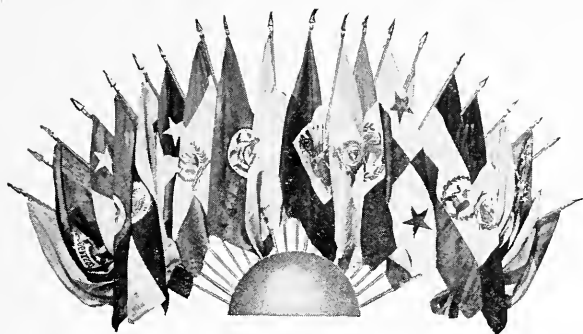
Two years after receiving these presents, Bolívar went to his rest in the midst of the conflicts of political parties. . . . To the noble José Ignacio París, survivor of the horrors of the "War unto Death" (*Guerra a Muerte*), belongs the honor of having erected in the Andes the first statue of the Liberator in 1846. This admirer and friend of Bolívar bore the entire expense of the work by Tenerani which, a tribute to the great citizen, adorns the square of Bogota. It was presented to the Congress of his country, New Granada (now Colombia), and the offering of love and duty thus became national property.

It is noteworthy that when Ignacio París gave the models to the artist he ordered that on the breast of Bolívar only one medal was to appear—that which bears the likeness of Washington and which his family presented to the Liberator.<sup>3</sup>

What was the motive of these instructions, of this exclusion of any other medal? It was because the effigy of Washington on the breast of Bolívar, perpetuated in bronze, is to be eternal like Washington—as the memory of the great benefactors of the human race is eternal. . . .

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<sup>3</sup> Since that date all statues, busts, and portraits of Bolívar bear the effigy of Washington.



## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Mexican bibliography.*—The Government of Mexico, through its Ministry of Foreign Affairs, has issued the first volume of a national bibliography under the title: *Anuario Bibliográfico Mexicano de 1931*. México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, 1932. In it are listed 635 books on Mexico, printed by Federal and State Governments or issued privately. The book comprises 243 pages and includes an index by subjects and a list of book dealers throughout the country.

*Accessions.*—Among the publications received in the library since these notes were last published was a collection of 32 volumes of poetry, fiction, and history from the Director of the Bibliotheca Nacional in Rio de Janeiro. Among these were *O Brazil Nação*, *realidade da soberania brasileira*, by Manoel José de Bomfim; *Livro de fabulas*, by Balthazar Pereira; *Na terra das palmeiras: Estudos brasileiros*, by S. Froes Abreu; *A margem da historia da Republica: ideaes, crenças e afirmações*, by various authors; a collection of histories, one for each State, of Sao Paulo, Paraná, Santa Catharina, Minas Geraes, Rio de Janeiro, Alagoas, and Bahia, and one for the city of Rio de Janeiro; *Outubro, 1930*, by Virgilio A. de Mello Franco; *Frei Miguelinho: ou aspectos politicos e moraes do tempo de D. João VI*; a drama, *Independencia*, by Luis Edmundo; four volumes of poems by Amadeu Amaral, Enrique Gonzalez Martinez, Luis Edmundo, and Leonardo Motta, respectively; a volume of essays by Gustavo Barroso, entitled *Aquem da Atlantida* and Ruy Barbosa's *Escola da Calumnia* and other essays.

Another highly interesting addition was the 11-volume work *Manual gráfico-descriptivo del bibliófilo hispano-americano*, by Francisco Vindel. With a prologue by D. Pedro Sainz Rodríguez . . . Madrid, 1930-31. This work lists 3,287 rare books, including 450 Spanish incunabula and 1,800 titles of the sixteenth century. Volume

11 is an index by subjects, authors, and date of publication, with an estimated price for each entry.

Students of Peruvian history will welcome a new edition of the *Diccionario histórico-biográfico del Perú* compiled by Manuel de Mendiburu and originally published in Lima from 1870 to 1890 in eight volumes. The new edition is being prepared by Evaristo San Cristóval with additions and bibliographic notes and is printed in Lima by the Imprenta "Enrique Palacios." So far volume 1, 1931, and volume 2, 1932, have appeared, each priced at 10 soles.

Some of the other outstanding books received during the past month are as follows:

*El sentido de la vida.* Novela. Por Francisco R. Villamil. Montevideo, Impresora Uruguaya, S. A., 1931. 204 p. 12°.

*Salvaje.* Cuentos regionales. Por Valentín García Sáiz. Prólogo por Juan M. Filartigas. Carátula por José Luis Zorrilla de San Martín. Montevideo, Casa A. Barreiro y Ramos, S. A., 1927. 163 p. 12°.

*Forma del mar.* Por Rómulo Nano Lottero. Montevideo, Palacio del Libro, 1930. 216 p. 8°.

*Compendio de historia patria.* Por Belisario Quevedo. Biblioteca Ecuatoriana, Volumen VI. Quito, Editorial Bolívar, 1931. 245 p. 8°.

*En elogio de Henri Barbusse.* Por Gonzalo Zaldumbide. Madrid, Imprenta Resón de Paños, 1919. 60 p. 12°.

*José Enrique Rodó;* única reimpresión autorizada. Por Gonzalo Zaldumbide. New York, Paris, Revue Hispanique, 1921. 104 p. 12°.

*Flautas y cigarras.* Por José M. Pichardo. Santo Domingo, Tip. Listin Diario, 1931. 139 p. 8°.

*My English book.* Part 2. By Josefina A. Molinelli Wells. Buenos Aires, Ferrari Hnos., 1932. 108 p. 12°.

*Historia de la esclavitud de los indios en el Nuevo Mundo.* Seguida de la historia de los repartimientos y encomiendas. Por José Antonio Saco. Introducción de Fernando Ortíz. Tomo 1. Colección de libros cubanos, vol. 28. Habana, Cultural, S. A., 1932. Iv, 297 p. 8°.

*El General Eugenio Garzón.* Soldado de la independencia americana. Por Telmo Manacorda. Montevideo, Impresora Uruguaya, S. A., 1931. 325 p. 8°.

*Crónica de la reja.* Por Justino Zavala Muniz. Grabados en madera de Adolfo Pastor. Montevideo, Impresora Uruguaya, S. A., 1930. 302 p. ilustr. 8°.

*Privilegios diplomáticos.* Síntesis teórica y de legislación comparada. Por Jaime Eyzaguirre. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1932. 118 p. 8°.

*Almanaque del labrador y ganadero,* 1932. [Montevideo], Publicado por el Banco de Seguros del Estado, sección seguros rurales. 1932. 544 p. ilustr. 8°.

*La doctrine de Monroe.* Conférence prononcée le 20 août 1929, au palais de la faculté de droit, des sciences politiques et sociales de Buenos Aires (Argentine), par Monsieur Joseph Jolibois Fils. Port-au-Prince, Imprimerie Aug. A. Héreaux, 1932. xxiv, 43 p. 8°.

*Ferrocarriles colombianos.* La última experiencia ferroviaria del país, 1920-1930. Por Alfredo Ortega. Biblioteca de historia nacional, Volumen 47. Bogotá, Imprenta Nacional, xvii, 371 p. Ilustr. 8°.

*Crónica de la real y pontífica universidad de México.* Escrita en el siglo xvii por el bachiller Cristóbal Bernardo de la Plaza y Jaén. Versión paleográfica, proemio, notas y apéndice por el Prof. Nicolas Rangel. Tomo 1-2. México, Universidad Nacional de México Autónoma, 1931. 4°.

*Doctrina de Monroe y cooperación internacional.*—Por Camilo Barcía Trelles . . . Madrid, Compañía Ibero-Americana de Publicaciones [1931]. 741 p. 12°.

*La contribution de l'Amérique Latine au développement du droit international public et privé.* Par J. M. Yepes . . . Paris, Librairie du Recueil Sirey, 1931. 109 p. (Extrait du Recueil des Cours, Académie de Droit International).

New magazines or magazines received for the first time were as follows:

*Boletín de la Dirección de Agricultura y Ganadería* (Ministerio de Fomento). Lima. Año 1, No. 1, septiembre-octubre de 1931. (M.) 160 p. illus. 7 x 9½ inches.

*Salud y Sanidad* (Publicación mensual del Departamento Nacional de Higiene; Sección de Uncinariasis, para la propaganda y vulgarización de la higiene pública y privada). Bogotá, Colombia. Año 1, No. 1, marzo de 1932. 12 p. illus. 6¾ x 9½ inches.

*El Motor* (Órgano del Sindicato Central Nacional de Chóferes). Bogotá, Colombia. (M.) 30 p. illus. 6¾ x 9½ inches.

*La Casa de Montalvo* (Órgano de la Biblioteca de "Autores Nacionales"). Ambato, Ecuador. (M.) Año 1, Nos. 6-7, enero-febrero de 1932. 88 p. illus. 7 x 10 inches.

*El Obrero* (Órgano del "Obrero" Sport Club). San Cristóbal, Estado Táchira. Venezuela. (M.) Año 1, No. 5, 1° de mayo de 1932. 16 p. 8¾ x 12 inches.

*Boletín de Estadística Municipal de la Ciudad del Rosario de Santa Fé* (Oficina de Estadística Municipal). Rosario de Santa Fé, julio de 1931. 29 p. 8½ x 11 inches.

*Resumen Agrícola* (Dirección General de Agricultura, Secretaría de Agricultura y Fomento). México, D. F. (M.) [Vol. 1], No. 1, abril de 1932. 183 p. 8¾ x 10¾ inches.

*Boletín del Reformatorio de Menores*, Quito, Ecuador. Talleres Tipográficos Nacionales, Año 1, No. 1, marzo de 1932. 54 p. 7¾ x 10¾ inches.

*Revista del Museo Nacional*, Lima. [Vol. 1], No. 1, 1932. 124 p. illus. 8½ x 11 inches.

*Servir* (Revista y boletín de informaciones de la Cruz Roja Juvenil Peruana). Lima. (M.) Vol. 1, No. 1, mayo de 1932. 16 p. illus. 6¾ x 9¾ inches.

*Antioquia Industrial* (Revista mensual, órgano de la Asociación de Industriales de Medellín). Medellín, Colombia. Vol. 1, No. 3, noviembre de 1931. 32 p. 8½ x 11½ inches.

*El Maestro Rural* (Órgano de la Secretaría de Educación Pública). México, D. F. (M.) Tomo 1, No. 1, 1° de marzo de 1932. 20 p. illus. 9 x 13 inches.

*La Brecha* (Periódico de los Trabajadores de la Federación de Sindicatos Obreros del Distrito Federal). (Quincenal.) Año 1, No. 1, 1° de mayo de 1932. 8 p. illus. 12 x 16 inches.

*Boletín Comercial, La Paz, Bolivia.* Suspended publication from February 15, 1931, to May 1, 1932.

# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

*Honor to the Liberators of America.*—There has been formed in Washington an organization to be known as “The Association for Honoring the Liberators of the Nations of America.” The Honorary Presidents of this Association are Elihu Root, former Secretary of State of the United States; Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, President of Columbia University, and Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union.

The President of this Association is Dr. James Brown Scott, Secretary of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. The Honorary Secretary General is Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union, and the Secretary is Mr. George A. Finch, Assistant Secretary of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

The formation of this association during the period set apart for the commemoration of the bicentenary of the birth of George Washington offers an opportunity to pay special tribute to the memory of this outstanding patriot of the United States of America.

In the Hall of Patriots in the Pan American Union in Washington, the nations forming the Union have each placed a bust of their outstanding national hero. On November 2, 1932, will occur the centenary of the death of José Matias Delgado, El Salvador's representative in this gallery of patriots. Delgado, regarded by El Salvador as its foremost son and defender of liberty, is equally revered throughout Central America as one of its heroes in its early struggle against the rule of Spain.

“The Association for Honoring the Liberators of the Nations of America” plans to commemorate the great anniversaries in the history of the American nations, and it hopes to interest the students in the educational institutions of the Americas in a more intensive study of the great virtues and the outstanding events in the lives of great national heroes. It is the plan of the association to establish branches in the capital cities of all of the Americas, and to hold in Washington during the month of October a function where special tribute will be paid to the heroes whose centenaries of birth or death are being commemorated during 1932.

## FINANCE, INDUSTRY, AND COMMERCE

*Inter-American Commercial Arbitration.*—Misunderstandings arising out of business transactions between merchants of one country and another have in the past been the source of much ill will. Controversies between merchants in the United States and those in Latin America regarding such subjects as prices, quality of merchandise shipped, and terms of payment have frequently occurred and these disputes have sometimes become bitter because there was no way for the seller and the buyer to arbitrate. The recent establishment in New York of an Inter-American Arbitration Tribunal under the auspices of the American Arbitration Association and the Committee on Inter-American Relations<sup>1</sup> is a long step toward the solution of these controversies and the promotion of friendly commercial relations.

What the Inter-American Arbitration Tribunal proposes is to offer an agency through which business men in the United States and the representatives of business men in Latin America may arbitrate commercial disputes under adequate legal safeguards, whenever both parties have voluntarily agreed to arbitrate in the United States. In other words, the business men of the other American Republics are offered the national facilities now existing in the United States for the arbitration of commercial controversies, this country's arbitration statutes providing that an arbitration agreement, whether in a primary contract or in a submission agreement, is legally valid and enforceable and that an award is enforceable as a judgment of the court when rendered in conformity to the law. The success with which these facilities have been administered by the American Arbitration Association is evident when one considers that during the last six years 2,567 controversies, involving millions of dollars, have been submitted to the American Arbitration Tribunal for arbitration and no

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<sup>1</sup> The Committee on Inter-American Relations was founded in New York by a group of prominent American business men on March 6, 1930. Its purpose is not only to retain and increase United States trade with Latin America, but also to promote a better and more practical understanding of the racial, cultural, and intellectual characteristics of all the nations concerned in the growth and interchanges of the Western Hemisphere. It has adopted a broad program covering the general fields of aviation, communications, highways, cooperation with chambers of commerce and trade associations, education, and publicity. The committee supports the Pan American Information Service, which sends news sheets in Spanish and Portuguese to more than 900 daily newspapers throughout Latin America and releases to United States papers translations of editorials and special articles which appear in the press of Latin America. It also makes available to the Institute of International Education funds with which to bring to the United States Latin American college students in order that they may pass a year or two in schools of the United States pursuing special courses. In connection with the National Foreign Trade Council the committee is at present conducting a study of Latin American commercial, investment, and public credits. According to the chairman of the committee, Gen. Palmer E. Pierce, the purpose of the study is not only to discover what constructive measures may be undertaken now, but also to build up a better understanding in the American countries of their mutual interests and relationships as a guard against future recurrences of the present credit situation.

award rendered by the Tribunal has been vacated by the courts. The proceedings in these disputes were conducted at an average cost of \$35 to each party.

The Inter-American Tribunal will conduct its proceedings in accordance with the rules of the American Arbitration Association, which have been so carefully drawn as to be legally enforceable under all Federal or State laws in the United States. In order to insure absolute impartiality in the proceedings, an arbitration committee of five members is being selected, two of which will represent the United States and three the other American Republics. This committee will have charge of the conduct of the tribunal and of the proceedings under its rules.

To assure the availability of impartial arbitrators, the first step in the establishment of the tribunal was to select a permanent Inter-American Panel of Arbitrators which now comprises over 150 carefully chosen men. The nominations for the panel were made by the consuls-general representing American Republics in New York and by members of the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Council of the American Arbitration Association. Every country in the Western Hemisphere is represented. In order to keep down the cost of arbitration, which will be between 1 or 2 per cent of the amount of the claim or less, and to insure no private relationship or interest between parties and arbitrators, these arbitrators have agreed to serve without compensation, in the belief that by so doing they are making a genuine contribution to inter-American commercial understanding.

Mr. Herman G. Brock, vice president of the Guaranty Trust Co. and vice chairman of the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Council, in outlining the plans for the tribunal at a recent luncheon at the Bankers Club in New York, described how the tribunal will operate when a dispute arises which the parties wish to submit to arbitration. "If the controversy," he said, "arises under an arbitration clause in a contract or under a submission agreement, the party desiring arbitration communicates with the clerk of the tribunal, making a demand for arbitration. The clerk then gets in touch with the other party or his agent, representative, or attorney in the United States, and arrangements are made for a statement of the issue and for a hearing. According to the nature of the case and the kind of qualifications required in the arbitrators, the clerk prepares a list of 10 or 15 arbitrators which he submits to each party with instructions to cross off the names of any persons for any reasons not desirable. From the remaining names on both lists, the arbitrators are appointed, and if one list is not sufficient, others are submitted. When the arbitrators have been selected, a date is set for the hearing and the arbitration then carried through to completion."



Besides providing in advance facilities for the dealing with controversies arising under arbitration clauses used in inter-American commercial contracts, the tribunal will also serve as a center of experiment and education through the actual conduct of inter-American arbitrations which might be helpful in devising a method for cooperating organizations in other American Republics.

The Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference, which met at the Pan American Union from October 5, to 13, 1931, recommended that the Pan American Union have a thorough inquiry made as to the possibilities of the commercial interests of the American Republics joining in the support and active use of a system of arbitration to be utilized in trade disputes between all countries.

Pursuant to this resolution the Pan American Union has undertaken a comprehensive inquiry covering every phase of commercial arbitration in the American Republics. With the cooperation of the American Arbitration Association, a study is being made of existing legislation covering commercial arbitration in all countries and questionnaires and inquiries have been directed to commercial associations, lawyers, educators, business men, and economists with a view to determining the possibilities of extending the use of arbitration in the settlement of trade disputes.

The results of this survey will be submitted to the Seventh International Conference of American States, which will meet at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December, 1933. A topic on this subject has been incorporated in the program of the Montevideo Conference.

*Ten Points in Argentine Economics.*—Dr. Alejandro E. Bunge, the well-known Argentine economist, opened the sessions of the National Academy of Economics of the University of Buenos Aires last April with a lecture, published in the May, 1932, issue of the *Revista de Economía Argentina*, in which he analyzed the relative position of ARGENTINA in the face of the present world-wide depression. In the same manner that international disturbances at the beginning of the last century were the starting point of Argentine political independence, the present crisis, he says, will mark the beginning of the economic liberation of his country. According to Doctor Bunge, the following 10 points in the economic structure of Argentina favor the country in this undertaking and place her in a relatively privileged economic position:

1. "Among civilized countries Argentina has one of the smallest public debts, taking into consideration the number of its inhabitants and its productive capacity." In support of this statement Doctor Bunge, among other things, points out that the total national, provincial, municipal, consolidated and floating, internal and foreign debt of Argentina amounts to \$167 per capita, as compared with \$204 per capita for Italy, \$224 for Canada, \$289 for the United States,

\$361 for France, \$863 for Australia, and \$930 for the United Kingdom.

In his opinion there are three unfavorable aspects of the debt question: (1) A large proportion of the public debt is foreign and must be paid in gold in addition to the gold payments that must be made because of the large sums of foreign capital invested in the country; (2) the floating debt amounts to about 1,300,000,000 paper pesos and is a serious hindrance to business, labor, and banking; and (3) the decline in the price of export products and the rise of the foreign exchange rate have been equivalent in their effects to the addition of 1,000,000,000 paper pesos to the public debt. He suggests two remedies: No more foreign loans for a number of years and the consolidation of the floating debt.

2. "The inhabitants of Argentina have a smaller tax burden than those of the majority of countries, considered in relation to both their number and their economic capacity." The total cost of the national, provincial, and municipal governments of Argentina has increased five fold in the last 30 years, from 260,000,000 to 1,300,000,000 paper pesos. In the meantime the population has only doubled, thus in one generation the tax load each inhabitant must carry has increased two and a half times. This burden, says Doctor Bunge, is in reality not so heavy, because the economic capacity of each inhabitant, measured in terms of the value of national production, has doubled. To prove that national production has increased four times in 30 years, Doctor Bunge mentions the amount of freight transported by the railways, which increased from 12,000,000 tons in 1900 to 53,000,000 tons in 1927 and 44,000,000 tons in 1931, and the growth of the export trade in volume and value. Thus, public expenditures have increased only somewhat more than 25 per cent in relation to the economic capacity of each inhabitant. This increase in the cost of government, it is pointed out, is universal and has been attributed in part to armaments and wars and in part to the increasing State regulation of and participation in commerce and industry. Argentina, in the opinion of Doctor Bunge, has fared better in this respect than many other countries. While there the public expenditures—which, including those of the provinces and municipalities, now amount to 1,300,000,000 pesos a year—represent at par \$44 per inhabitant, in France they amount to \$49; in Canada, to \$61; in the United States, to \$82; in the United Kingdom, to \$104; and in Australia, to \$151. He makes three reservations to this advantage: The system of taxation, which he finds inconvenient and unfair and believes should be modified; the fact that an excessive portion of the revenue derived from taxation is devoted to salaries, pensions, and State monopolies which do not benefit the country; and finally that the general decline in prices is equivalent to an abrupt and important tax increase, as in the case of the public debt. "If the value and the income from a

piece of property," says Doctor Bunge, "has decreased 30 per cent, the tax on that property, since it has remained the same, may be said to have increased practically by 30 per cent."

3. "The present deficit in the national and provincial budgets are, compared with the revenue, relatively extremely low and very easy to make up." In support of this statement Doctor Bunge says that the deficit which was to be met this year amounted to only 15 per cent of the national budget, while in the United States it was nearly 45 per cent. Doctor Bunge bases his contention that the Argentine deficits are relatively easier to meet on the reasons with which he supports point No. 2.

4. "Argentina is one of the most eminently peaceful nations and has now a greater incentive to maintain that position, with incalculable benefit to its economy and finances." The cost of national defense in Argentina amounts to only 10 to 15 per cent of the national and provincial public expenditures.

5. "The number of unemployed in comparison with the working population is smaller in our country than in Germany, England, the United States, and other countries considered among the principal world economic powers." "The reason is simple," says Doctor Bunge. "While those countries have had to reduce their production, Argentina increased the volume of its agricultural products in 1931, and by substituting its own products for those that were formerly imported, is constantly increasing its manufacturing activities." He admits, however, that since agricultural products have been sold during the last two years at prices very near or below cost, it will be harder this winter for rural occupations to absorb the unemployed. As an emergency relief measure he advocates the building of roads financed through a bond issue secured by the gasoline tax.

6. "Argentina is one of the few exporting countries so far able to export all its surplus production; even in 1931, when national agricultural production reached a new record, exports were 70 per cent greater than in 1930."

7. "Argentina is one of the few countries which in the midst of the world depression has been able to change in one year an unfavorable trade balance of 125,000,000 gold pesos into a favorable balance of 123,000,000 gold pesos."

8. "Argentina is one of the few countries in the world capable of diversifying production in a few years and capturing a near-by and important market: its own." Doctor Bunge estimates that until recently only about 60 per cent of what Argentina consumed was produced in the country, the remaining 40 per cent being purchased abroad. During 1931, he says, this ratio was changed to 85 and 15 per cent, respectively, and during 1932 it will probably be 90 and 10.

9. "Argentina is one of the few countries whose internal resources for financing the national and provincial governments and national

industries are practically untouched." Up to 1910, the economic development of the country was so rapid that people invested their money chiefly in the expansion of their own business. The period that followed was one of relative stagnation coupled with large profits, a combination which encouraged saving. By 1921 saving deposits had reached 1,000,000,000 paper pesos and a like sum was invested in bonds. In the 10-year period from 1921 to 1931 saving deposits doubled and the money invested in bonds reached 3,000,000,000 pesos. These savings were first used mainly to develop the import trade, the oldest and best organized branch of commerce in the Republic; now, Doctor Bunge believes, they are beginning to be available for the promotion of agriculture and industry and the purchase of national and provincial bonds. [In this connection it is interesting to note that an unofficial announcement from Buenos Aires dated June 12 says that the first series, amounting to one-fifth of the 500,000,000-peso patriotic loan, has been oversubscribed.]

10. "Finally, Argentina is a well-organized country which has suffered comparatively little curtailment in its exceptionally high per capita production; it shows one of the highest population increases, and, therefore, has one of the largest annual increases in consumption capacity."

Commenting upon Doctor Bunge's lecture *The Review of the River Plate*, a Buenos Aires English weekly says:

The vital point made by Ing. Bunge was the inevitably beneficial outcome of Argentina's relative financial self-reliance—an enforced self-reliance, if you will, in consequence of which a country with the backing of this country's resources must and will find a way out. The manner in which the country has reduced its imports without having to suffer unbearable privation is too significant to be overlooked. . . . On broad-minded analysis of the situation of many countries, great and small, Argentina is striving as well as the best of them in its endeavor to pull through. If, as we believe, that was the final conclusion which Ing. Bunge sought to uphold in his lecture, then we are of the opinion that he made his point

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## LABOR

*Eight-hour Day Regulations for Brazilian Workers.*—During May BRAZIL joined the ranks of those countries which have made the observance of the 8-hour day compulsory in all industrial establishments.

The Brazilian decree, signed by Getulio Vargas, chief of the Provisional Government, on May 4, 1932, provides that the working day in industrial establishments may not commence before 5 a. m. nor end later than 10 p. m. and shall normally be of eight hours duration.

The working week, according to the decree, shall consist of 48 hours so arranged that for each period of six working-days there shall be one

day of obligatory rest. The weekly rest period shall have a minimum length of 24 consecutive hours and shall be observed on Sunday, save where in consideration of public interest or because of the peculiar nature of the industry a different plan has been agreed upon by employer and employee. The weekly rest period may be suspended if necessary to prevent accidents or to effect urgent repairs.

Exception to the regulations on the normal length of the working day or week will be made in cases of members of the same family who are engaged in manual labor and personnel occupying specialized executive, administrative, or confidential positions.

The division of the working week is not necessarily arbitrary; it may be made in any way provided that no working-day exceeds 10 hours and the amount of the wages is not increased.

The normal length of the working-day may be increased to 10 hours or 60 hours a week should an agreement or collective labor contract between the employer and the employees to this end and provision for the payment of additional wages be made. The working-day in unhealthful industries or those carried on underground may not exceed eight hours.

In exceptional instances the working-day may be extended to 12 hours. These include cases involving certain sections of industrial establishments where overtime work is necessary for finishing the work of other sections or vital because delay would result in the impairment of raw materials or articles in process of manufacture. Arrangements for an increase in wages for the extra time are to be made by agreements between the employer and employees or by collective labor contracts.

Any industrial establishment may be run continuously provided its employees work on shifts.

Length of night work shall not exceed seven hours except in industrial plants working both day and night and in those subject to special regulations issued by the Minister of Labor, Industry, and Commerce.

In certain industries the normal length of the working-day may be divided into two periods with an intervening rest period lasting at least three hours, provided that the actual working time shall not exceed 10 hours.

Night as well as day work shall be divided by an interval for rest or lunch. This period shall not be computed in the normal length of the working time and shall be at least half an hour.

Whenever there is a forced interruption of work resulting from an accident or *force majeure*, the length of subsequent working-days may be increased until the lost time has been made up. The length of no working-day, however, shall be increased by more than two hours.

The decree states that its provisions shall not affect the working-day in maritime trades, agricultural industries, general transportation

activities, mining, and the operation of Federal, State, or municipal public utilities in charge of private corporations; working conditions in these industries are subject to special regulations issued by the Minister of Labor, Industry, and Commerce.

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## EDUCATION

*Résumé of Government Educational Activities During 1931.*—Meeting a need whose importance is constantly gaining wider recognition among the mass of the people of every land, educational authorities throughout Latin America carried on an extensive work during the year 1931 for the advancement of education, and their programs, while relatively unspectacular, were, nevertheless, highly praiseworthy. Unfavorable economic conditions necessitated the curtailment of a few of the less vital activities and militated against the establishment of others which had been authorized; however, former high standards were generally maintained and many truly forward-looking measures were adopted. Reports on the activities of the Departments of Public Education of three of the Central American Republics and Cuba, Paraguay, and Venezuela<sup>1</sup> as presented to the legislative branch of the respective Governments either by the Presidents in their annual messages or as a separate report of the department, reflect a decidedly optimistic note.

In a message to the National Legislative Assembly on March 1, 1932, President Jorge Ubico, of GUATEMALA, stated that perhaps the most outstanding measures taken by his Government in the interest of education during the year had been the creation of a museum of archæology, ethnology, and history and the designation of various pre-Colombian remains in different parts of the Republic as national monuments. A board of censors to pass on theatrical performances open to children was organized and a school dental service established.

Other laws, decrees, and regulations issued during the year included the Organic Law of the National University, with a decree approving its statutes, a regulation creating the degree of Expert Accountant, and a decree providing for the presentation of a series of lectures on subjects of scientific, artistic, or general educational interest to be given in the university and other schools as well as broadcast for the benefit of the public as a whole. In order to secure suitably trained teachers, orders were issued making it necessary for all persons not having a teacher's certificate to pass a special examination before they may teach and giving the preference in the filling of high positions to teachers trained in normal schools.

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<sup>1</sup> A report on educational activities of the Uruguayan Government is to be found in the June, 1932, issue of the BULLETIN.

The National University functioned regularly during the year; 714 students were enrolled in its various schools, and its graduates numbered 16. The enrollment in the normal, secondary, and special schools totaled 4,769; 368 students completed their courses during the year. These last represented:

Primary teachers, 141; kindergarten teachers, 2; teachers of trades, 11; teachers of lower primary grades, 27; bookkeepers, 12; expert accountants, 4; and others, 186.

The Division of Rural and Indigenous Education maintained 957 rural schools during the year. These had an enrollment of 25,693 and an average attendance of 24,179. The Division of Educational Extension and the Division of Preparatory and Urban Primary Education functioned as usual. Among other duties, the Division of Educational Extension had charge of 36 Government libraries located at different places throughout the Republic.

The primary schools of the Republic, which numbered 2,410 and were staffed by 3,396 teachers, had an enrollment of 110,890 pupils and an average attendance of 102,029.

Government primary schools to a total of 1,281 were opened at the beginning of the 1931 school year in HONDURAS, according to a statement made by President Mejía Colindres in January, 1932. The secondary, normal, and vocational schools functioned regularly. So successful has been the work of the kindergartens in the capital and Comayagüela that it has been decided to establish others in each of the principal cities of the Republic. At the end of October, separate accounts were established for the funds of the University, the National Institute, and the School of Commerce. This is expected to give these institutions greater economic independence and consequently a greater amount of self-government.

According to the annual report of the Secretary of Justice and Public Instruction of EL SALVADOR there were 924 official, 85 municipal, and 119 private schools, with a total average attendance of 40,078 students, functioning in the Republic during the 1931 school year. These schools were staffed by 1,698 teachers, and their enrollment and attendance by class of school were as follows:

	Enroll- ment	Average attend- ance
Urban boys' schools.....	17,208	11,177
Urban girls' schools.....	19,310	14,231
Rural boys' schools.....	8,699	5,875
Rural girls' schools.....	11,609	8,795
Total.....	56,826	40,078

The number of school buildings occupied by the official schools at the present time is 886. The majority of these have a reading room

and a library containing recreational reading material and reference works for both teachers and pupils.

A fund of 50,000 colones has been appropriated for the establishment of a trade school, but as yet the unfavorable economic conditions have prevented any definite action being taken toward its organization.

During the year normal courses were offered in the Boys' Normal School, the Girls' Normal School, and the María Auxiliadora School in San Salvador, and the Santa Inés School in Santa Tecla. A greater interest manifest in the need for especially trained teachers has also made possible the opening of teaching courses in Santiago de María and in Santa Ana, and classes in pedagogy are now also being given in a number of the secondary schools.

Courses in arts, sciences, and business have been continued regularly in the 52 different secondary schools. The National Institute, the most important secondary school in the Republic, had an enrollment of 363 pupils during the past year. The total number of students in all the secondary schools was 1,119. The girls' vocational school reported an enrollment of 123 pupils for the year; its average attendance was 109. Other schools whose work during the year deserved special mention were the Froebel School, the National School of Fine Arts, the National Music School, and the School of Dramatics.

Under the direction of the National Commission of Physical Culture, physical education is being widely developed throughout the Republic, and as a result it is now difficult to find a town, no matter how small, where there is not some athletic or club organization.

During the year, 10,440 readers used the National Library, while the reading rooms in San Salvador and other places throughout the Republic reported having been visited by 23,956 persons.

There were 3,767 public primary schools in CUBA during the year 1930-31, according to a statement made by the President of the Republic in his message to Congress on April 4, 1932. The total enrollment of the primary schools, which were staffed by 7,572 teachers, was 434,219 and the average attendance was 249,199. The enrollment by grades in the regular primary schools was as follows:

Grade:	Number pupils
Kindergarten.....	28, 274
First grade.....	171, 842
Second grade.....	95, 222
Third grade.....	66, 729
Fourth grade.....	42, 083
Fifth grade.....	20, 757
Sixth grade.....	9, 312



Sixty-seven teachers spent their whole time in itinerant teaching during the year, serving schools where it was thought inadvisable to maintain a permanent instructor. This was true of 145 communities; through the work of the itinerant teacher the population of school age was given an opportunity to obtain educational advantages. The enrollment in the schools thus taught totaled 3,089 and their average attendance was 2,376.

Night schools throughout the Republic numbered 94, with an enrollment of 7,393 and an average attendance of 3,113. Classes were also held in various penal institutions to afford the prisoners an elementary education. The enrollment in the prison schools totaled 2,277. While as a rule the prison school was called upon to serve persons of all ages, the majority of the pupils were adults.

Special teachers totaled 834; included among them were 711 regular and assistant kindergarten teachers, 36 English teachers, 15 instructors in sloyd, 50 sewing teachers, and 18 regular and assistant domestic science teachers.

Upper primary schools, of which there were 31 in the Republic, had an enrollment of 7,236 and an average attendance of 4,744. Their teaching staff numbered 363.

A total of 457 private schools submitted statistical reports to the Department of Public Instruction during the year. According to the information thus received, these schools have an enrollment of 26,622 pupils and an average attendance of 22,793. They were staffed by 1,483 teachers.

Much is being done at the present time in educational circles for the encouragement of agriculture and thrift. A large number of the schools have gardens and experimental fields where the pupils are taught the principles of agriculture, and many have also established savings banks. The school library and museum are likewise coming to be considered necessary adjuncts to every modern teaching center, and the number of parent-teachers' associations is constantly growing. At present there are over 61,000 volumes in the school libraries in the provinces of Habana, Matanzas, Santa Clara, Camagüey, and Oriente; figures for those in Pinar del Rio were not given. The selection of books for these libraries calls for careful planning on the part of those in charge; that they shall afford entertaining as well as wholesome and instructive reading material has become one of the outstanding considerations in the choice of books for their shelves. In some cities the school authorities have had the libraries thrown open to the general public also, in order that the facilities may be enjoyed by the adult population as well.

The number of school gardens, libraries, museums, and parent-teachers' associations by provinces is as follows:

Province	Gardens	Libraries	Museums	Parent-teachers' associations
Pinar del Rio.....	37	27	322	161
Habana.....	267	430	459	377
Matanzas.....	276	309	402	245
Santa Clara.....	569	562	600	522
Camagüey.....	112	99	102	125
Oriente.....	125	117	215	238
Total.....	1,386	1,544	2,100	1,668

According to the message of President Guggiari on the occasion of the opening of Congress on April 1, 1932, there are 108,741 children enrolled in the primary schools of PARAGUAY at the present time; 20,000 of this number are in attendance in the schools of Asuncion and the remainder attend the rural schools.

Besides the normal, trade, and agricultural schools, of which mention is made below, the secondary and special schools of the Republic include the National University and the secondary schools in Asuncion and Villarrica.

There are six normal schools in Paraguay, with an enrollment of 736, engaged in training teachers for the primary schools. One of these, the National Teachers College located in Asuncion, offers classes particularly adapted for those who have taught before finishing their training, and another, the normal school at Barrero Grande, carries on interesting work in connection with its experimental farm. An important activity of normal schools at present is the adoption of new systems of child psychology and the application of the Dalton plan and the Winnetka method in the practice schools.

Trade schools for women now number 23 and have an enrollment of 659 students. While they are generally known as private institutions, they receive Government support and are more or less under the supervision of the Government.

The agricultural schools, maintained in Trinidad and Concepcion, offer three general courses. The first, an elementary course, covers two years and provides a theoretical and practical background for persons wishing to engage in farming along scientific principles. Students are taught the use of various farming implements, methods of selecting seed, crop rotation, horticulture, stock raising, and other related industries. The secondary and upper classes treat the subject from a viewpoint of greater specialization and provide an adequate training for the agricultural expert or teacher of the subject.

The statistical information on public education in VENEZUELA during the year 1931, submitted to Congress by the Director of the

Bureau of Primary, Secondary and Normal Instruction of the Ministry of Public Instruction, was as follows:

	Number of schools	Enroll- ment	Average attend- ance	Number of teachers
Primary schools:				
Federal graded schools.....	170	27, 200	19, 248	839
Federal schools with 1 teacher.....	1, 230	52, 734	36, 293	1, 230
State schools.....	329	10, 985	7, 945	349
Municipal schools.....	194	8, 611	6, 296	286
Schools maintained by private funds giving free instruction.....	107	8, 865	7, 800	425
Private schools.....	124	5, 386	4, 626	187
Total.....	2, 154	113, 781	82, 208	3, 316
Secondary instruction:				
Federal secondary schools.....	18	1, 029	908	215
Private secondary schools.....	18	624	582	92
Total.....	36	1, 653	1, 490	307
Normal instruction: Normal schools for primary teachers.....	2	152	146	35
Higher instruction:				
Schools of political science.....	3	21	19	9
Universities.....	2	976	696	139
Total.....	5	997	715	148
Special instruction:				
Commercial schools.....	3	441	344	25
Trades schools.....	2	1, 249	553	82
School of domestic art.....	1	15	8	1
School of plastic arts.....	1	158	80	4
School of music and public speaking.....	1	866	282	26
Total.....	8	2, 729	1, 267	138

## SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

### REPORTS RECEIVED TO MAY 16, 1932

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Argentina from April 19 to May 2, 1932. (Funds for the Olympic Games. Andine eruptions.)	1932 May 6	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Trade in Argentine grapes. (Article published in La Nacion and dated New York, May 17.)	May 24	Do.
BRAZIL		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Brazil from March 11 to April 6, 1932. (American Rotary Club of Rio de Janeiro gives library of juvenile books to the "United States School.")	Apr. 6	Embassy, Rio de Janeiro.
CHILE		
Internal communications in the Valparaiso district.....	Apr. 18	Frank A. Henry, consul at Valparaiso.
COLOMBIA		
Highway construction—Department of Nariño.....	Feb. 8	H. D. Myers, vice consul at Buenaventura.
Cartagena Harbor improvements and port works.....	May 7	Stephen C. Worster, vice consul at Cartagena.

*Reports received to May 16, 1932—Continued*

Subject	Date	Author
COSTA RICA		
Establishment of school of science in Costa Rica .....	1932 May 3	Legation.
CUBA		
Decrease in Cuban postage rates .....	May 25	F. T. F. Dumont, consul general at Habana.
Tariff reprisals in Latin America .....	June 3	Embassy.
ECUADOR		
Decree of Ecuadorean Government establishing control of exchange.	May 2	Legation.
EL SALVADOR		
Appointment of a commercial agent for El Salvador in the United States. (Reports received to June 15, 1932.)	May 27	Do.
GUATEMALA		
Charges increased for international postal money orders .....	Apr. 28	G. K. Donald, consul general at Guatemala City.
Decree re tuition in secondary schools .....	Apr. 28	Legation.
Government to charge for secondary education .....	Apr. 28	Do.
Free entry granted to certain products of Salvadorean origin .....	May 9	Do.
Mining law of Guatemala .....	May 19	Wm. E. Flourney, Jr., vice consul at Guatemala City.
HAITI		
Report by Dr. N. D. Barker on the progress of experiment to develop a long-staple cotton and prospective market value thereof.	Apr. 27	Donald R. Heath, consul at Port-au-Prince.
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Haiti for the period from April 1 to April 30, 1932. (General financial and economic conditions.)	May 9	Legation.
PERU		
Peruvian employment law .....	Apr. 23	Wm. C. Burdett, consul general at Callao-Lima.
URUGUAY		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Uruguay for April, 1932. (Pan American Day Celebration. Dr. John D. Long in Montevideo.)	May 4	Legation.
VENEZUELA		
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Venezuela for April, 1932. (Pan American Day.)	Apr. 4	Legation.
Annual message of Venezuelan President to Congress .....	May 2	Do.
Public works in the State of Sucre .....	May 11	Do.
Annual report of the Minister of the Interior .....	May 18	Do.
Annual report of the Minister of Finance for the year 1931 .....	May 18	Do.
Election of officials for the second period of the National Congress.	May 19	Do.
Report of National Frontier Inspector for Venezuela along the Brazilian-British Guiana frontier.	May 24	Do.

ARGENTINA BOLIVIA BRAZIL CHILE COLOMBIA  
 PERIODICALS SECTION  
 CITY LIBRARY 1855  
 SPRINGFIELD, MASS.

# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



LAKE AMATITLAN, GUATEMALA

AUGUST

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA  
 COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

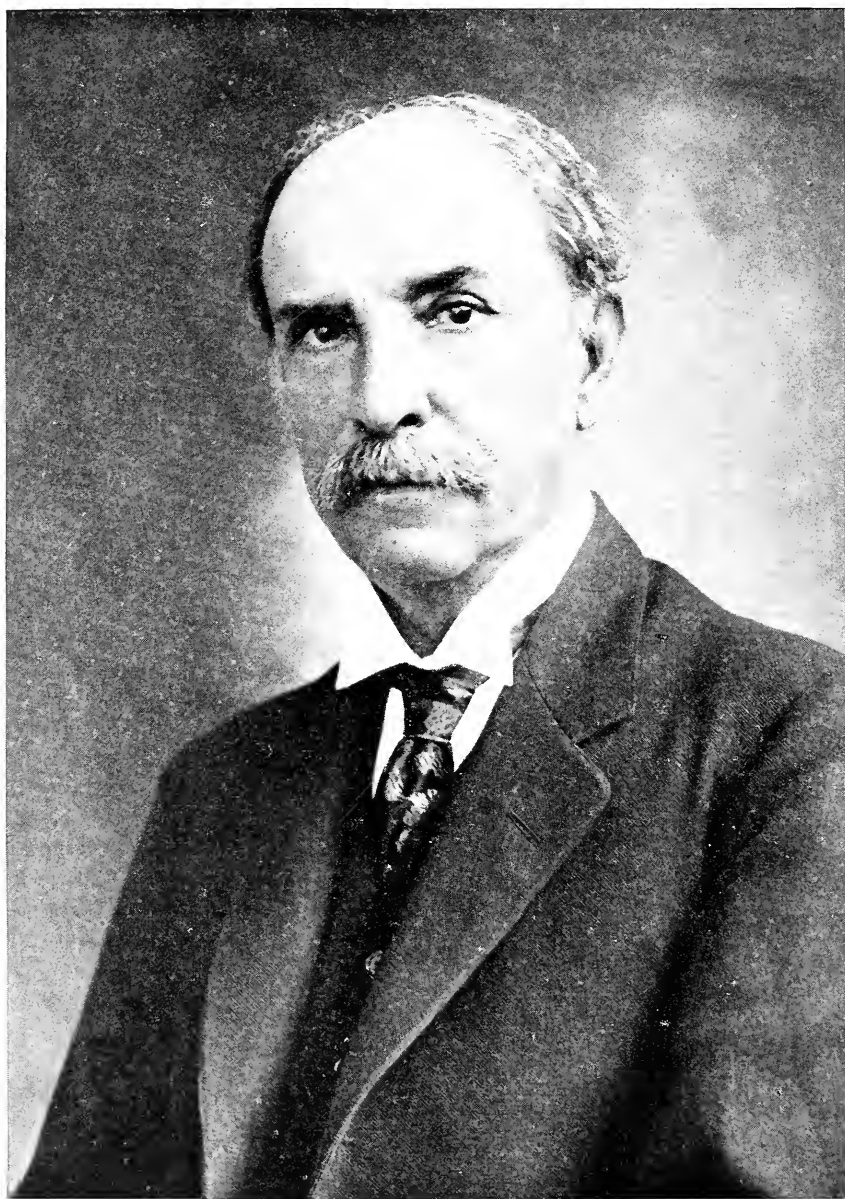
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HIS EXCELLENCY SEÑOR DON RICARDO JIMÉNEZ

Inaugurated President of Costa Rica May 8, 1932.





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VOL. LXVI

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## RICARDO JIMÉNEZ OREAMUNO, PRESIDENT OF COSTA RICA

ON MAY 8, 1932, Dr. Ricardo Jiménez Oreamuno was for the third time inaugurated President of Costa Rica. In 1910 and again in 1924 he had been the people's choice, and this year, in the midst of the difficulties with which Costa Rica, like every nation, is confronted, his fellow citizens once more elected "Don Ricardo," as he is affectionately called, to be their leader for the next four years. This third term is an unprecedented distinction to a citizen of Costa Rica. President Jiménez is also the only man ever to have held the three highest offices in the country's gift—those of President of the Congress, Chief Justice, and President of the Republic.

To understand why these marks of confidence have been bestowed on President Jiménez one has only to glance back over his long and fruitful career, which began in 1885 with his appointment as Minister to Mexico. Later he was Minister to Nicaragua and El Salvador and delegate with the rank of Minister Plenipotentiary to the Central American Congress in 1888. First called to the cabinet in 1889 as Minister of Foreign Affairs, he has likewise held the portfolios of the Interior, Public Works, Public Instruction, and the Treasury. As a lawyer he won deep respect and esteem, both in private practice and as the head of the National School of Law. Now, at the age of 73, he places at the command of the country his ripened experience, fine intelligence, and high civic ideals.

From colonial days public service has been a tradition in the family of President Jiménez; one of his ancestors, the famous explorer Juan Vázquez de Coronado, was Alcalde Mayor of Costa Rica in 1563, dying in 1565 as he returned to be governor; a maternal grandfather, Señor Francisco María Oreamuno, was President of the Republic, and Don Jesús Jiménez twice occupied the office which his son now holds.

# INTER-AMERICAN FINANCIAL AND ECONOMIC STABILITY

By WILLIAM MANGER, PH. D.

*Chief, Division of Financial Information, Pan American Union*

THE past few years have witnessed a severe disruption of the economic and financial structure of the nations of the world. Nowhere have the effects of such changes been more severely felt than in the Republics of Latin America. To a degree greater than most countries, these nations are influenced by forces operating in the world at large, and fundamental changes in finance, industry, and commerce in other regions are strongly reflected in the economic situation of each nation of the American Continent.

The Republics of Latin America are primarily producers of raw materials, which are disposed of in the industrialized nations of Europe and in the United States. Manufacturing is still in its early stages in most of the countries, and in the sale of the products of their fields, their mines, and their forests, they are subject to the many varying influences governing prices in world markets. Over most of these influences they exercise little or no control, and in this respect they are unfortunate. For countries whose national income is so largely dependent on the production of raw materials are subject to a greater extent than are industrialized nations to fluctuations in economic activity. The entire economic life of the nation revolves around the income derived from the disposal of these raw materials in the markets of the world, and an inability to make such disposal, or a marked diminution in the proceeds derived from the sale of these products, caused by either lack of demand or severe drop in prices, has its repercussions in every phase of national economic activity.

In the Republics of Latin America, therefore, exports are not merely intended to meet the cost of imports. The revenues required to administer the government are derived principally from the duties levied on goods entering and leaving the country; and when, as in recent years, the value of the foreign trade suffers a shrinkage in value of anywhere from 40 to 50 per cent, many governments find themselves in financial embarrassment, unable to meet the expenses of administering the country. Being economically new, only a few of the countries have achieved a basis of economic development sufficiently broad so that when one source of income declines others may be tapped.

Closely related to the drop in foreign trade has been the virtually complete stoppage in the flow of international credit. Like all nations

with relatively undeveloped natural resources, the countries of Latin America have been for years past, and will continue to be for many years to come, the market for the investment of large amounts of capital. Because of their comparative newness and lack of economic development these funds must come from abroad; and the cessation in this flow of credit during recent years, at the very time when it was most urgently needed, has had consequences but little less disastrous to the countries of Latin America than the shrinkage in exports and imports.

## DECLINE IN FOREIGN TRADE

The foreign trade figures of the Republics of Latin America afford eloquent testimony of the effect on the national economy of the general stagnation that has come upon world trade during the last three years, and of the severe drop in commodity prices which has but served to aggravate this condition. Taking 1929 as a point of departure, and giving a value of 100 to the import and export trade of that year, the changes in the foreign commerce of these countries during the two subsequent years are graphically set forth in the accompanying table.

An examination of these statistics reveals that the foreign trade of all the countries has suffered a terrific decline in value. In a number

## LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE

1929 - 1930 - 1931

TRADE INDICES - 1929 = 100

(Values in U. S. Gold)

ARGENTINA

[illegible]

## BOLIVIA

[illegible]

BRAZIL

		<u>Exports:</u>				
1929:	\$455,352,913					
1930:	314,070,865					
1931:	237,875,540					
		<u>Imports:</u>				
1929:	\$415,104,977					
1930:	252,181,916					
1931:	131,665,380					

## CHILE

	1929:	1930:	1931:	1929:	1930:	1931:
Exports:	\$279,146,471	161,611,929	112,742,800			
Imports:	\$196,857,513	170,090,500	86,260,960			

LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE INDICES - 1929 = 100COLOMBIA

Exports:	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
1929: \$123,065,787											
1930: 109,327,293											
1931: 95,977,620											
Imports:											
1929: \$122,585,680											
1930: 60,955,859											
1931: 40,397,590											

COSTA RICA

Exports:											
1929: \$ 18,197,910											
1930: 16,330,604											
1931: No Data.											
Imports:											
1929: \$ 20,163,936											
1930: 10,846,590											
1931: No Data.											

CUBA

Exports:											
1929: \$272,439,762											
1930: 167,410,669											
1931: 117,008,655											
Imports:											
1929: \$216,215,113											
1930: 162,452,268											
1931: 80,052,504											

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Exports:											
1929: \$ 23,736,497											
1930: 18,551,841											
1931: 13,851,500											
Imports:											
1929: \$ 22,729,444											
1930: 15,229,219											
1931: 10,151,762											

ECUADOR

Exports:											
1929: \$ 17,207,364											
1930: 16,129,308											
1931: 11,332,034											
Imports:											
1929: \$ 16,967,053											
1930: 12,796,321											
1931: 8,615,234											

EL SALVADOR

Exports:											
1929: \$ 18,415,497											
1930: 13,656,500											
1931: a 12,060,744											
Imports:											
1929: \$ 17,340,286											
1930: 12,436,000											
1931: a 8,267,636											

GUATEMALA

Exports:											
1929: \$ 24,928,229											
1930: 23,577,818											
1931: 15,167,386											
Imports:											
1929: \$ 30,399,067											
1930: 16,473,970											
1931: 10,461,223											

HAITI

Exports:											
1929: \$ 16,723,833											
1930: 14,144,567											
1931: 8,963,419											
Imports:											
1929: \$ 17,237,922											
1930: 12,841,626											
1931: 9,576,318											

a.-Fiscal year ended June 30.

LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE INDICES - 1929 = 100HONDURAS

	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
<u>Exports:</u>											
1929: \$ 24,569,166											
1930: 26,171,218											
1931: 20,027,287											
<u>Imports:</u>											
1929: \$ 12,860,931											
1930: 15,946,128											
1931: 10,291,422											

MEXICO

<u>Exports:</u>											
1929: \$295,316,628											
1930: 229,337,245											
1931: 199,855,657											
<u>Imports:</u>											
1929: \$191,421,490											
1930: 175,089,208											
1931: 108,292,708											

NIAGARA GUA

<u>Exports:</u>											
1929: \$ 10,872,526											
1930: 8,543,358											
1931: No Data.											
<u>Imports:</u>											
1929: \$ 11,797,440											
1930: 8,172,360											
1931: No Data.											

PANAMA

<u>Exports:</u>											
1929: \$ 4,143,502											
1930: 3,302,008											
1931: No Data.											
<u>Imports:</u>											
1929: \$ 19,277,988											
1930: 17,757,920											
1931: No Data.											

PARAGUAY

<u>Exports:</u>											
1929: \$ 13,055,973											
1930: 13,751,159											
1931: 12,470,867											
<u>Imports:</u>											
1929: \$ 13,434,592											
1930: 14,685,178											
1931: 9,778,310											

PERU

<u>Exports:</u>											
1929: \$134,032,584											
1930: 96,453,300											
1931: a 60,241,488											
<u>Imports:</u>											
1929: \$ 75,940,984											
1930: 53,307,217											
1931: a 27,158,952											

URUGUAY

<u>Exports:</u>											
1929: \$ 96,466,537											
1930: 104,898,770											
1931: 79,334,252											
<u>Imports:</u>											
1929: \$ 98,509,167											
1930: 92,873,661											
1931: 85,341,404											

VENEZUELA

<u>Exports:</u> <sup>b</sup>											
1929: \$141,349,880											
1930: 143,366,727											
1931: 139,419,236											
<u>Imports:</u> <sup>b</sup>											
1929: \$ 88,269,374											
1930: 77,455,414											
1931: 56,068,820											

a Estimates for full year based on actual figures for nine months.

b Fiscal years ended June 30.

of them the drop in the value of exports has been so much greater than the drop in imports that the favorable balance of trade which must prevail if these nations are to maintain the equilibrium of their international balance sheets has been completely wiped out. Instead of a favorable balance of trade several of the countries found themselves with an excess of imports over exports. Such was the case in Argentina and Chile in 1930; in Costa Rica, Guatemala, and Nicaragua in 1929; in Haiti in 1929 and 1931; in Paraguay in 1930; and in Uruguay in 1929 and 1931. And in other nations still enjoying a favorable balance, the excess of exports over imports was so small as frequently to be insufficient to cover the invisible charges running against the nation. It must be remembered that these are all debtor states, and are required annually to make large remittances abroad on account of their external debt, foreign capital investments, etc. The excess of exports over imports should normally be sufficient to equal the charges running against the country by virtue of these so-called "invisible" items. And when, instead of a favorable balance of trade there is actually an excess of imports over exports, the burden becomes an exceedingly heavy one.

What these invisible debits are is not easily determinable, as but few countries have developed statistical facilities to a point where such data are ascertainable. That they are enormous goes without saying when one reflects the interest and sinking fund charges that must be met on the billions of dollars of government securities held abroad, plus the direct investments in mines, railroads, electric light and power companies, and other public utilities. In Argentina, an annual balance of international payments is prepared by Señor Don Carlos Tornquist, and in his estimate for the two economic years October 1, 1929–September 30, 1930, and October 1, 1930–September 30, 1931, the following picture is presented:

*Argentine Balance of Payments*

	Millions of gold pesos <sup>1</sup>			Millions of gold pesos <sup>1</sup>	
	1929-30	1930-31		1929-30	1930-31
<b>ASSETS</b>			<b>LIABILITIES</b>		
Exports.....	661.27	606.05	Imports.....	778.92	586.59
Gold exports.....	64.00	171.17	Service of public debt.....	68.00	70.00
New capital issues.....	80.00	50.00	Gold imports.....	.....	.20
Interest on loan to France.....	.50	.50	Service of mortgage cédulas.....	7.50	7.50
Repayment loan to Spain.....	6.30	.....	Railway dividends.....	70.00	56.00
Travelers' expenditure.....	12.00	10.00	Return on other capital.....	35.00	30.00
Public loans.....	112.46	5.00	Remittances of foreign residents.....	30.00	20.00
Bonds exported.....	5.04	4.00	Public loans repaid.....	.....	64.00
Bank credits.....	10.50	50.13	Travelers' expenditure.....	25.00	20.00
Unspecified balance.....	85.75	.....	Bonds imported.....	3.40	3.10
Losses on foreign capital through failures, etc.....	.....	40.00	Transfers of capital.....	20.00	40.00
Total.....	1,037.82	936.85	Unspecified balance.....	.....	39.46
			Total.....	1,037.82	936.85

<sup>1</sup> The par value of the Argentine gold peso is \$0.9648 United States currency.

In his comments, Señor Tornquist points out that on foreign investments alone Argentina is required to pay annually approximately 180,000,000 to 200,000,000 gold pesos for the service and amortization of this borrowed capital. Other liabilities, such as remittances of foreign residents and expenditures by Argentine travelers abroad, increase this total anywhere from 50,000,000 gold pesos upward. Instead of an excess of exports over imports to cover these invisible debit items, Argentina for the 2-year period under consideration actually had an unfavorable trade balance of approximately 100,000,000 gold pesos. The flotation of new capital issues, public loans, and bank credits to the amount of 200,000,000 pesos contributed to a balancing of the account in 1930, so that only 64,000,000 pesos in gold had to be exported from the country; but in 1931 inroads on the gold reserves to the extent of 171,000,000 gold pesos had to be made, owing to the virtual disappearance of new public loans and a decrease in new capital issues to only 50,000,000 gold pesos.

In Brazil Senhor Valerio Coelho Rodrigues, of the Department of Commercial Statistics, has compiled statistics on the financial situation of the nation, in which he estimates that in 1931 the obligations devolving upon the country as a result of foreign capital invested in the country and of services rendered by foreign corporations amounted to approximately £36,000,000 sterling. On the other hand, on the visible side of the balance of payments Brazil had an excess of exports over imports of only £20,948,000, leaving an unfavorable balance for the year of about £15,052,000. Similar adverse balances are estimated for previous years, and were made up by the introduction into Brazil of foreign capital, either in the form of direct investments or public loans. But when the market for foreign financing was all but closed in 1930 and 1931, resort had to be had to the disposal of the gold reserves of the nation and eventually to suspension of interest and service charges on the foreign debt.

As set forth elsewhere in this article, in Chile it was estimated that during the second half of 1931 remittances of 187,000,000 pesos<sup>1</sup> had to be made on the foreign debt, while interest remittances on foreign capital investments were estimated at an additional 100,000,000 or 150,000,000 pesos. This would place the obligations of Chile on the invisible items alone at from 575,000,000 to 675,000,000 pesos annually. On the basis of its visible trade with foreign countries, Chile was far from being in a position to meet these invisible liabilities. In fact, in 1930, Chile actually had an unfavorable balance in its export and import trade, and in 1931 the favorable balance was not sufficient by half to meet these invisible charges.

In Peru, although no detailed study of the international balance of payments has been made, the service charges on the foreign debt of

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<sup>1</sup> The par value of the Chilean peso is \$0.1217 United States currency.

the nation amount to about 30,000,000 soles,<sup>2</sup> to which must be added other sums of an undeterminable amount covering services by foreign maritime, mining, insurance, and other corporations. To meet these invisible charges, Peru has continued to enjoy an excess of exports over imports, which for 1931 was estimated at approximately 100,000,000 soles, or a balance equal to that of 1930, 1929, and 1928. Ordinarily, this should be sufficient to meet the invisible liabilities in the balance of payments, but during the recent period of economic and political stress there has no doubt been a movement toward the withdrawal of foreign capital from the country. This would explain the depreciation in the value of the unit of currency.

A similar picture would be revealed by every other country were statistics available.

#### INTERNATIONAL CREDIT OPERATIONS

An unfavorable balance of trade, even in normal times, has not been unknown. But in such cases, the credits accruing to a country by other means have been sufficient to offset the excess of imports over exports, until economic conditions have had an opportunity to right themselves. These "other means" have been the credits accruing to the nation as a result of the introduction of foreign capital, either in the form of direct investments or by the sale of government securities abroad. Of course, as a factor in balancing the international balance sheet, such credits can be considered as credits only at the time they are made—a temporary form of relief, for they create additional obligations, on which interest and sinking fund charges must be met, and in the case of all Latin America these charges can be met only by the exportation of merchandise. It is axiomatic, therefore, that foreign loans should be utilized only for productive purposes, to develop the national wealth, and the country thereby placed in a position to repay the obligations arising out of the loan. At the time it is made, however, the loan constitutes a credit in favor of the debtor state, and might well serve to offset what would otherwise be an unfavorable balance in the nation's international transactions.

Now, during the last two years these "other means" of temporary relief have not been available to Latin America in anywhere near the sum required to offset the drop in export values. In fact, foreign capital markets have been all but closed to these countries, and since 1930 Latin American financing, both governmental and private, has declined to relatively insignificant sums.

The argument might well be advanced that when exports decline, imports should be curtailed, and the relative position of the two retained. This is logical, but more easily said than done. In so far

<sup>2</sup> The par value of the Peruvian sol is \$0.28 United States currency.



as the Latin American countries are concerned, the raw materials which constitute the major portion of their export trade are governed by world prices, and experience has demonstrated that the price of raw products tends to decline far more rapidly than that of manufactured articles, which Latin America imports. Furthermore, it is also a fact that imports tend to decline much more slowly than exports, partly because of the difference in degree of price recession, and partly because commitments for imports are made on the basis of expected returns from exports before the price decline on the latter begins. In time, of course, and through the operation of natural economic laws, the normal ratio of exports to imports is reestablished. This is now being demonstrated in a number of countries which have recently experienced unfavorable balances of trade; by the accumulation of an excess of exports over imports, economic equilibrium should in time be reestablished, and the value of the currency again return to a point around par.

Another consequence of the shrinkage in foreign trade has been the effect on national revenues. Customs duties are a major source of income of all the Latin American countries, and a sharp falling off in exports and imports, such as has been experienced during the last few years, can not but have a deleterious effect on the national finances. Many governments have seen their income shrink 50 per cent or more during the past few years.

Strenuous efforts have been made to readjust the national expenditures to the reduced income, and the extraordinary measures taken by nearly all governments to limit expenses can not but command admiration and respect. But as is universally the case—no less in Latin America than in the United States—it has not been possible immediately to alter the operations of the government to the basis of the reduced volume of income. Budgets are prepared well in advance of the beginning of the fiscal year and are drawn up on the basis of anticipated revenues. In a period of declining prices the expected receipts are not realized, but when this becomes evident the expenditures have already been made, so that even though a country continues to have an excess of exports over imports, the sharp decrease in revenues resulting from the decline in value of foreign trade places the government in a position where it is unable to meet its obligations. Neither is it possible to obtain relief in the foreign capital markets in the form of loans to tide the government over, nor are other sources of income available within the respective countries. In such a dilemma, and confronted by a situation in which the national income was insufficient to meet the minimum requirements of the administrative operation of the government, many countries felt themselves obliged to suspend payment of interest and sinking fund charges on their public debt.

## UTILIZATION OF GOLD RESERVES

As a result of the operation of these economic forces, many of the countries of Latin America found themselves faced by:

1. A reduction in the value of their export trade, to a point where it was actually less than the value of their imports; or, in the case of some countries which continued to have a favorable balance on the visible items of their international transactions, this balance was so small as to be insufficient to offset the unfavorable balance among the invisible items.

2. An inability to obtain credit relief, either short-term or long-term, to tide them over this period of economic readjustment, owing to the virtual complete stoppage of international credit operations.

Confronted by such a situation, the only recourse available to these countries to maintain the stability of their currencies was the exportation of gold reserves or the disposal of their gold deposits held abroad. Under the conditions prevailing since 1929 many of the countries of Latin America have been compelled to make severe inroads into their gold stocks. The following table indicates the extent to which these gold holdings have diminished:

## ARGENTINA

(Conversion Office)

	In gold pesos, par value \$0.9648 United States
December, 1929.....	419, 643, 387
December, 1930.....	425, 773, 917
December, 1931.....	260, 876, 000

## BOLIVIA

(Central Bank of Bolivia)

	In bolivianos, par value \$0.365 United States
December, 1929.....	55, 625, 000
December, 1930.....	40, 172, 000
December, 1931.....	26, 618, 000
February, 1932.....	27, 272, 000

## CHILE

(Central Bank of Chile)

	In pesos, par value \$0.1217 United States
December, 1929.....	447, 700, 000
December, 1930.....	340, 800, 000
December, 1931.....	194, 500, 000
April, 1932.....	165, 600, 000

## COLOMBIA

(Bank of the Republic of Colombia)

	In pesos, par value \$0.9733 United States
December, 1929.....	37, 748, 000
December, 1930.....	27, 417, 000
December, 1931.....	13, 778, 000
April, 1932.....	14, 412, 000

## ECUADOR

(Central Bank of Ecuador)

	In sucres, par value \$0.20 United States
December, 1929.....	35, 063, 646
December, 1930.....	28, 915, 152
December, 1931.....	15, 567, 234
March, 1932.....	14, 666, 841

## GUATEMALA

(Central Bank of Guatemala)

	In quetzales, par value \$1 United States
December, 1930.....	3, 582, 000
December, 1931.....	2, 745, 000
February, 1932.....	2, 597, 000

## PERU

(Central Reserve Bank of Peru)

	In soles, par value \$0.28 United States
May, 1931.....	70, 551, 000
December, 1931.....	60, 073, 391
April, 1932.....	42, 138, 031

## URUGUAY

(Bank of the Republic of Uruguay)

	In pesos, par value \$1.034 United States
December, 1929.....	65, 949, 372
December, 1930.....	59, 506, 055
December, 1931.....	50, 924, 011
March, 1932.....	50, 215, 281

Despite the utilization of their gold reserves to meet their international obligations, many countries found continued pressure bearing upon their currencies. Under normal conditions, the exportation of gold or the utilization of gold reserve funds abroad sets up

counteracting influences which tend to restore the equilibrium of the exchange; but when countries, like those of Latin America, are so dependent upon economic factors beyond their control—such as the prices of their major commodities of export—this does not always result, and exchange continues to run against them. The reduction of the gold reserve has the effect of reducing the outstanding note circulation which it supports, and while in countries maintaining a high legal reserve the reserve ratio may be reduced and outstanding note circulation maintained, there is an irreducible minimum below which it is felt the gold reserve can not fall, except at the risk of crippling internal economic activity or completely wiping out the gold reserve. Furthermore, there is a natural desire on the part of all countries to conserve their gold holdings. Even in the United States, recent gold withdrawals engendered fear as to the possible consequences, notwithstanding that approximately one-third of the total world supply still remains in the country.

The situation of Chile as set forth in the last annual report of the Banco Central will serve to illustrate the difficulties confronting many of the countries of Latin America. After the very heavy inroads that had been made on the nation's gold reserves from June 30, 1929, to June 30, 1931, reducing these reserves by 50 per cent, Chile, on June 30, 1931, found itself confronted by heavy foreign commitments falling due during the latter part of the year. On the foreign debt alone remittances of 187,000,000 pesos remained to be paid, to which it was necessary to add advances contracted abroad and treasury bills in foreign currencies maturing in the course of the year, which brought the total payments to be effected abroad in the second half of 1931 to 590,000,000 pesos. This did not include interest on foreign capital investments in Chile, which interest was estimated at between 100,000,000 and 150,000,000 pesos for the second half of 1931.

The foreign trade of the country had produced only a small favorable balance up to the end of the first half of 1931, and it was realized that any improvement that might occur during the second half would not be sufficient to cover these invisible items. Neither, it was felt, could the gold reserves of the nation be further diminished by disposing of more of its gold holdings. Accordingly payment of service charges on the public debt was suspended, and when difficulties in the balance of payments continued to manifest themselves and the gold stocks of the Banco Central continued to drop, extraordinary measures were resorted to.

#### CONTROL OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE

By law of July 30, 1931, the Government of Chile instituted an exchange control commission. Many other countries felt the necessity of resorting to similar measures to protect their currency and the gold

stocks supporting the outstanding note circulation. Some 23 nations throughout the world have instituted restrictive regulations covering trading in foreign exchange, among which are included about 10 Latin-American countries. The nature of the restrictions varies in different countries, but all have for their object the protection of the national currencies and the preservation of the supporting gold reserves and all are predicated on the belief that the prevailing course of international transactions makes such measures essential.

By early instituting control measures of this character and by placing rigid restrictions upon the transfer of funds, several nations have sought to maintain the parity of their currencies. In others, they have been permitted, at least to a certain extent, to find their own level in relation to foreign currencies, and as a consequence their value has sadly declined. In Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil, and Chile the value of the national currencies has declined to 50 per cent or less of their par value; and in Peru, the value of the sol was restabilized at a figure 30 per cent below its previous value. In these nations, in remitting funds to foreign countries, if exchange is obtainable at all, remittances can be made only at a premium of 100 per cent or more, or by utilizing 2 pesos where 1 should suffice. It is this circumstance that prompted the Government of Uruguay at the end of 1931 to suspend payment of sinking fund charges on its external debt, and made it necessary for the Government of Argentina to insert a sum of 50,000,000 pesos in its 1932 budget to cover foreign exchange depreciation.

It must not be supposed that the influences above described affect merely the Republics in which they immediately operate. Severe as have been the consequences of these unfavorable factors during the past few years, their ramifications extend far beyond the borders of the Latin American States. They are felt throughout the world, and have contributed in no small measure to the economic stagnation that has fallen upon the United States. For some years Latin America has been accustomed to purchase a greater quantity of goods from the United States than from any other country; but whereas in 1929 American exports to all of Latin America amounted to the sizable sum of \$911,749,000, in 1931 this had fallen to \$313,539,000, a decrease of 66 per cent. Not only in the field of trade have we in the United States felt the effects of Latin America's inability to buy, but the returns on American capital invested in Latin America have shriveled to relatively insignificant sums, and the present market value of Latin American securities held by American investors is but a small fraction of the price at which they were sold and purchased.

The position in which the Republics of Latin America to-day find themselves is not altogether of their own making. To say that the

depreciation in their currencies, suspension of interest and sinking-fund charges on the foreign debt, and the imposition of control regulations on foreign exchange are due to unsound governmental administration and to imperfect financial and banking organization in the Latin American countries themselves is to ignore completely the causes which gave rise to present-day conditions—causes over which the Republics of Latin America have had little or no control. Far from being the cause, they are the unfortunate victims of an imperfect economic system; a system which permits the wiping out of values without thought of intrinsic worth and which allows those forces of relief to become stifled and incapable of functioning at the very moment they are most needed.

Disastrous as have been the developments of the last few years, they have not been entirely without value. They have demonstrated as was never before realized, the international economic interdependence of nations, and have shown that the welfare of each nation is closely intertwined with that of every other country. The theory of national economic self-sufficiency, even for a country as large and powerful as the United States, with all its resources, is a thing of the past. No country can hope to avoid the effects of a long-sustained period of economic depression affecting any considerable number of states. Some nations, like those of Latin America, are subject to the interplay of these economic forces because of their dependence to so large an extent on foreign trade and on foreign capital for their economic development; and others, like the United States and certain countries of Europe, because of the world-wide ramifications of their economic interests.

It is not sufficient, therefore, that a solution to these problems be sought from a purely nationalistic point of view; but they must be approached on the broad basis of international cooperation and with a full realization that the progress of one nation is closely related to the welfare and prosperity of every other state. This having been demonstrated in adversity, it now remains to find the form of international cooperative action to overcome the forces of adversity.

Two of the major problems which confront the Republics of Latin America and which have contributed so greatly to the present unfortunate position of those countries revolve around the decline in prices and the breakdown of international credit facilities. The two are probably closely related, the latter being a corollary to the former, and aggravating the conditions growing out of the first-mentioned phenomenon. We have observed how the decline in prices affects the volume of exports and imports of the respective countries, upsetting the normal balance of trade, diminishing the revenues of the government, adversely affecting the rate of exchange, and causing demands to be made upon the gold holdings of the

nation. Were these conditions to operate alone, and were it possible for these countries to obtain an extension of short-term credit, it would in the majority of cases still be possible for them to adjust themselves to fluctuations in the commercial situation. But the unfavorable consequences of a decline in export and import trade invariably tend to cause a contraction of credit, with its resulting evil effects, and the vicious circle is complete.

The importance of price stabilization is appreciated by all, but there is not the same unanimity of opinion as to the feasibility of such action, or the steps whereby it may be achieved.

In the report of the MacMillan Committee on Finance and Industry, which was appointed in England in 1929 and concluded its work in 1931, it was recommended that the international value of gold should be lowered and that, after prices have been raised sufficiently, the aim should be to maintain a stability of prices at the higher level thus reached. These objects of maintaining the stability of international prices both over long periods and over short periods are, in the opinion of the committee, to be achieved through co-operative action of the central banks in regulating the volume and terms of bank credit so as to maintain as much stability as possible in the rate of new investment and new enterprise generally, both at home and abroad. By these means alternate excesses of enthusiasm and depression might be avoided, and the demand for the new output of the instruments of production and other forms of capital in the world at large kept in better equilibrium with the proportion of income which is currently available for such purposes.

On this point of price stabilization, the final report of the gold delegation of the League of Nations does not agree with the conclusions of the MacMillan Committee. Regarding the suggestion that action be taken to raise prices, the League of Nations delegation deems a rise desirable but does not expect "monetary policy alone to adjust the price level, which is influenced by many" nonmonetary factors. Where credit contraction has gone to extremes it declares it "imperative" for central banks to do what they can to check it "and sometimes to take the initiative in encouraging the freer use of credit." But it concludes that "it will be difficult to restore prices and standard of living" until "there is some clearing of the atmosphere of international distrust" and world trade is freer. Regarding the future, it declares it impossible to stabilize prices, and that what relative stability is possible is not achievable by monetary policy alone.

The plan of the MacMillan Committee is directed to more or less permanent methods for preserving international economic and financial equilibrium. With respect to the steps to be taken for the relief of the existing situation, the report states that the first measure "must necessarily be taken on the initiative of the creditor countries,"

and that "the desirability of foreign loans being made by the leading creditor countries on a greater scale than in the past two years should be generally accepted." The report recognizes, however, the difficulty of finding creditors willing to lend, owing to the low state to which the credit of many countries has fallen, and concludes that "some form of guaranteed credit may be required. . . . A government guaranty scheme is only one alternative, perhaps the simplest."

This closure of foreign capital markets—or this breakdown in the international credit system—is the crux of the problem in so far as concerns the Republics of Latin America. Fluctuations in the level of prices—it is probably safe to assume that such fluctuations will continue and that no completely successful plan of price stabilization will be evolved at any time in the near future—undoubtedly have an adverse effect on the nations of Latin America, as they do in other countries and as the foregoing statistics have indicated. With the consequences resulting from price fluctuations alone to contend with, the majority of the nations of Latin America could no doubt adjust themselves to the altered conditions of lower price levels. But when to this problem there is added the further difficulty of inability to obtain an extension of credit during the period of readjustment, the problem becomes altogether too difficult, and there ensue those conditions which have been witnessed during the past two years—unfavorable rates of exchange, exportation of gold or disposal of gold deposits held abroad, inability to meet interest and sinking fund charges on the foreign debt, suspension of the operation of the gold standard, and the imposition of stringent regulations on operations in foreign exchange.

It is indeed unfortunate for the countries of Latin America that at the very time it was most needed, they were unable to obtain even temporary credit relief in foreign capital markets, pending the time that they could readjust themselves to altered economic conditions, and the normal relationship of outgo to income could be reestablished. Had such temporary relief been available, it is certain that many of the economic ills and the political difficulties resulting therefrom would have been avoided, and further, foreign holders of Latin American government bonds would not to-day find themselves with securities on which interest or sinking fund is not being paid, nor would exporters to Latin America find it necessary, as is now the case, to wait as long as two years for remittances on the merchandise which they have shipped.

The fact that credit was not available at this crucial moment denotes a weakness in the existing international credit organization, and raises a question as to the measures to be taken to remedy the defect. It has been clearly demonstrated that private credit can not be relied upon in such emergencies. Even countries enjoying



the highest standing in foreign financial centers find sources of private credit closed to them; nor is it surprising that creditors should hesitate to lend to governments whose existing securities are quoted at such a heavy discount. It must be remembered, of course, that this drop in security value develops only after adverse factors have been in operation some time. What is required, then, is an arrangement that will meet these adverse factors before they have had a chance to develop, and obviate their evil effects.

In view of this inability of private credit to function, the question presents itself as to whether some form of international cooperative action can not be devised to preserve the economic equilibrium of those states which are obliged to rely upon foreign credit but which find such sources of relief closed to them. In the report of the Mac-Millan Committee it was suggested that to make credit available, "some form of guaranteed credit may be required," and that a Government guaranty scheme was one alternative, perhaps the simplest. Similarly, in the report of the gold delegation of the League of Nations, it was declared that where credit contraction has gone to extremes it was "imperative" for central banks to do what they can to check it "and sometimes to take the initiative in encouraging the freer use of credit."

At the Conference of Central Bank Directors, held at Lima, Peru, in December, 1931, it was recognized that service on external debts is not only an expense affecting public finance but is also an obligation which affects international exchanges; and that "the situation brought about by the diminution of fiscal receipts as a consequence of the present crisis and, on the other hand, the lack of equilibrium in the balance of international payments produced by the decline in the value of exports explains in large part the difficulty of meeting the service on the external public debt, in so far as those countries are concerned which can not pay these services without compromising the stability of their exchanges." The conference, however, confined itself to placing the foregoing facts on record, and did not attempt to prescribe a remedy.

In another conclusion, however, the conference did express recognition of the need of the countries of Latin America for foreign credits with maturities which fall between those of short-term credits, granted by commercial banks, and those credits with longer maturities, provided by world capital markets. The conference recommended that the central banks cooperate in the study of "new mechanisms for providing intermediate credits, for productive purposes, with maturities of from one to three years."

Were such intermediate credits available to the countries of Latin America at times such as these of which we speak, they would be of tremendous assistance in maintaining the integrity of their currencies

without the necessity of disposing of their gold reserves. In three years, or even less, most countries would be able to adjust themselves to the new conditions growing out of a lowering of the level of prices and a diminution in the volume of exports and imports. The equilibrium in the balance of payments would be maintained, there would be no necessity to dispose of the gold reserves of the nation to a point where the parity of the currency would be impaired, and above all public confidence in the credit of the nation would be preserved. After all, the present low state to which the credit of so many of the countries of Latin America has fallen is due largely to lack of confidence. There is undoubtedly a considerable measure of justification in this attitude, in view of the existing situation. But that the conditions prevailing to-day are but temporary and that the enormous resources of the nations of Latin America afford adequate assurance of their future revival and prosperity, even the most pessimistic will admit.

That three years are adequate in which to enable most countries to adjust themselves to altered economic conditions is revealed in the statistics on the economic situation of these nations. In many of them, in 1929 and in 1930, the excess of exports over imports was exceedingly slight, if, in fact, imports did not actually exceed exports; but in 1931, with but one or two exceptions, the normal ratio of exports to imports had been reestablished, and returns thus far available indicate that in 1932 the foreign trade of most countries will show an even more favorable balance. Similarly, government expenditures have been reduced, so that they are more in line with anticipated revenue.

It is true the Conference of Central Bank Directors recommended that these intermediate credits should be made for "productive purposes." What could be more productive than a loan that would preserve the balance or equilibrium of a nation's economic life; that would preserve its national credit, the parity of its currency, and the integrity of its gold reserves; and that would not only perform that service for the recipient of the credit, but also assure to foreign exporters reasonable freedom in the flow of international trade, and to foreign bondholders the receipt at regular intervals of interest on the nation's outstanding bonds?

But no plan of intermediate credit relief has been advanced, and in view of this apparent breakdown in the system of private credit, the question presents itself as to what measures, if any, can be taken. It would be a real contribution to the stabilization of economic and financial relations if a plan of international cooperative action could be evolved, whereby a country, finding itself in the position in which so many of the Republics of Latin America found themselves in 1930—with an unfavorable balance of international payments, unable

to secure sufficient foreign exchange to meet their obligations abroad, and confronted with the necessity of exporting gold or disposing of their gold holdings abroad, going off the gold standard, and resorting to the numerous expediciencies which are to-day manifest to control exchange and regulate imports and exports—could be assured of obtaining short-term credits in those countries which have the necessary resources to extend this relief.

It might be contended that, where the adverse balances are so great as they have been in the case of some of the Latin American countries during the past two years, the obligation devolving upon the creditor nations would be altogether too heavy. This plan of cooperative action, however, might well be restricted to transactions affecting the governments of the respective nations, and involving remittances which the governments are required to make for interest and sinking-fund purposes on their obligations held abroad. These remittances would not involve any extraordinary sums, and would serve the double purpose of enabling the governments to meet their obligations and making available an equivalent amount of foreign exchange to be used in commercial transactions.

Conferences and cooperative action between banking institutions of different countries have been repeatedly recommended as a means of maintaining international economic and financial stability. Such cooperative action is especially necessary during periods such as those which the world is now experiencing. What is required is a plan whereby under certain conditions a government unable to obtain foreign exchange in the open market and not in a position to dispose of its gold holdings except at the risk of jeopardizing its economic and financial equilibrium would be able to draw a bill of exchange to cover the remittances which that government is required to make on account of its obligations held in a particular foreign country. Could not the banking institutions of the respective countries be an instrumentality for carrying such a plan of international cooperative action into effect? Could not they be the channel through which such intermediate credits would be made available? Such a draft would be for a relatively long period, say for one year as mentioned in the resolution adopted at the Lima conference, and subject to renewal for an additional period of a year if basic economic conditions had not improved. The bill of exchange would carry the full faith and credit of the debtor state, and would be covered by an equivalent sum in local currency deposited in a selected bank in the country of origin. Before such a plan of cooperative action could become operative it would, of course, have to be demonstrated that sufficient exchange was not available on the open market, and that the gold stocks of the country in question were not sufficient to enable it to export gold except at the risk of jeopardizing its financial and economic structure. It would also be

necessary that certain commitments be entered into, whereby the government availing itself of the provisions of such a plan would undertake to effect the necessary economies in governmental administration and to take such other steps as might be required to bring about an equilibrium in its international balance of payments.

It has been well observed that the obligation of keeping the gold standard in force and maintaining the financial equilibrium of the world devolves upon the creditor nations. The events which have taken place during the last few years are not peculiar to this day and age. They have occurred in the past and will recur in the future unless plans are formulated to meet such conditions and to avoid their consequences before they have had an opportunity to take root. The existing system has proved impotent in the past, and it becomes increasingly evident that if a repetition of these unfortunate events is to be avoided, they shall be avoided only through a plan of international cooperative action, either continental in scope or world-wide in character. Such a plan would prove beneficial to the debtor as well as to the creditor. In the debtor country, it would contribute immeasurably to the maintenance of the nation's economic equilibrium, the preservation of national credit and the parity of the currency, and the maintenance of the nation's credit in the eyes of the world. In the creditor country, its nationals who might hold the securities of the debtor government would be assured of the receipt of the interest payments due thereon; and its exporters might confidently expect a continuation of a free market for the disposal of their merchandise.



# MARKETING IN LIMA<sup>1</sup>

## I. THE CENTRAL MARKET

THE Far East and the Sons of the Sun; Buddha, Confucius, Viracocha, Jehovah, and Mahomet; a hundred creeds and a hundred races, rub elbows daily in the Central Market. It is the food emporium of Lima and the crossroads of the world in one. It is the Lima of a hundred years ago selling to the Lima of the twentieth century the foodstuffs and the fabrics of all the nations. . . . You can not claim to know Lima or what a bargain is, unless you have gone shopping in the Central Market. And, incidentally, you don't know what are Lima's favorite foods, unless you have sampled some of the strange dishes offered in the dozens of little restaurants which open out from all sides of this Tower of Babel.

Food is the principal *raison d'être* of the Central Market. It is a meat, fish, vegetable, butter and eggs, poultry, and flower market combined; and it is all too small for its many activities. In fact, the market itself begins a block or more away in all directions from the main building. If you approach it from the Plateros de San Pedro, it begins with a literary flavor. Along the curbstones and overlapping into the road are piles of second and third and tenth hand books and magazines. A few yards farther on the first wavelets of the inflowing tide of food are encountered—timid little heaps of peppers and Indian corn, bananas, and potatoes, presided over by Indian women. Presently you are wading up to your knees in a sea of vegetables and fruits which, as the market building itself is reached, have long since overflowed from the sidewalks into the fairway until only the narrowest and most perilous passage is left for the traffic of carts and lorries and taxicabs. From whatever direction the approach is made, the same experience is obtained. One street may be devoted mainly to turkeys and poultry, another to potatoes and *camotes* (sweetpotatoes), a third to mammoth watermelons and pawpaws. But there is no hard-and-fast uniformity. The house-keeper is liable to encounter all she needs for the evening meal, from the *hors d'oeuvres* and the soup to the savory and sweet (*ab ovo usque ad mala*, as we learned to say at school), upon the same sidewalk. And incidentally, if she is a linguist, she may talk in Spanish, Quechua, Aymará, Chinese, Japanese, or Arabic, and probably find some one to understand her wants.

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<sup>1</sup> From "West Coast Leader," Lima, May 3, 1932.



From the West Coast Leader.

#### PRINCIPAL CENTERS OF FOOD PRODUCTION IN PERU

The panels above and at right of map show the chief food products of Peru, by Departments, as follows:  
 1. *Piura*: Cacao, cereals, goats. 2. *Lambayeque*: Rice, fruit, sugar, goats. 3. *Cajamarca*: Cereals, cacao, cattle. 4. *Libertad*: Sugar, rice, cereals, cattle. 5. *Ancash*: Poultry, cereals, eggs, hogs. 6. *Junin, Huanuco, and Huancavelica*: Coffee, potatoes, cattle, sheep, cheese, butter, poultry, cereals, fruit. 7. *Ica*: Red and white wine, fruit, dried vegetables. 8. *Ayacucho*: Cattle. 9. *Cuzco*: Cacao, coffee, dried meat, corn, wheat, cheese, butter. 10. *Arequipa and Puno*: Mineral waters, dried meat, fruit, wine, olives, red peppers, coffee. 11. *Moquegua*: Olives, wine, cereals, fruit. 12. *Tacna*: Vegetables and fruit.

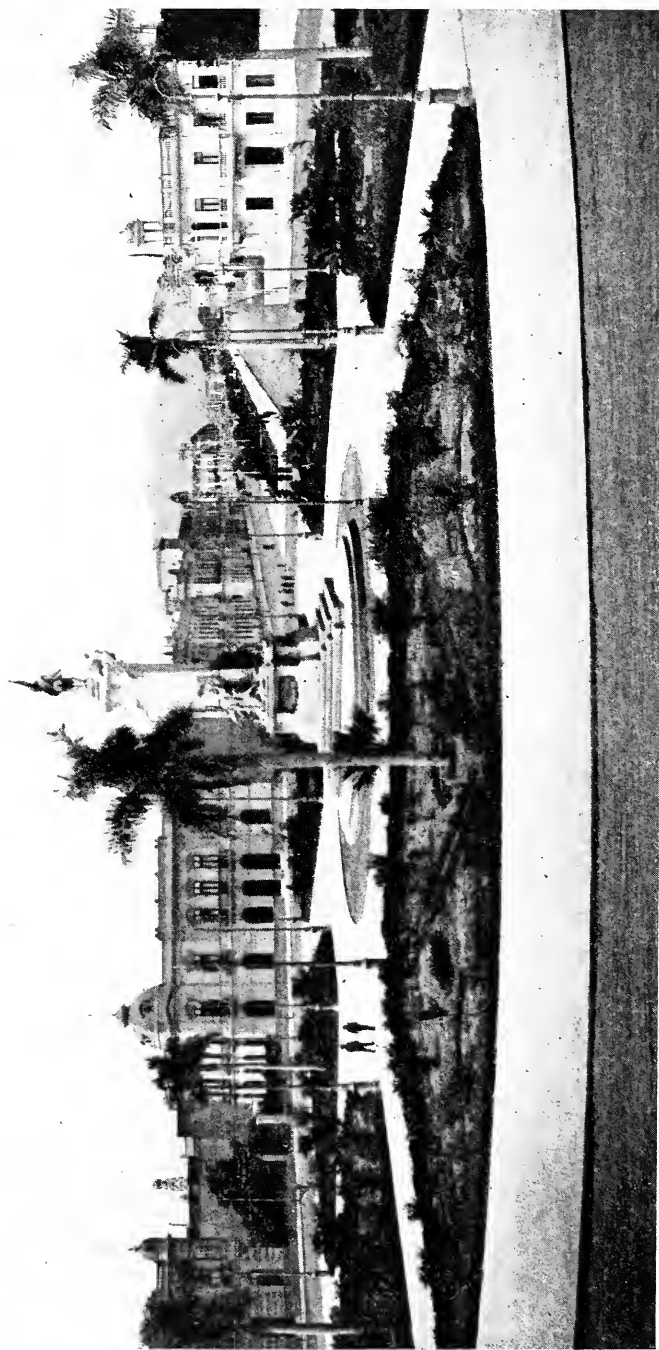
The Central Market may be heard long before it is reached or smelled. . . . From all sides hundreds of voices proclaim, in different pitches but full-lunged, the price and the merits of some article of food. From the same vantage point it may also be noticed that, in the midst of all this apparent confusion, there is a sort of orderly disorder which guides the purchaser and controls the vendors. The butchers' stalls, with the prime meats segregated from those of third quality, have their allotted place. The fishwives are separate from, though near to, the purveyors of live rabbits and pigeons and guinea pigs. The vegetables may overlap into the fruits, but flowers and artificial wreaths suffer no interlopers. There is one place in which to buy bread, and another tea or coffee, and a third where you may purchase a wicker basket or a paper bag from a selection of sizes in which to carry away the morning's marketing. And here, there, and everywhere are tables at which you may sit and rest and eat a plate of *conchitas* (clams) or drink a glass of *chicha*. Marketing is hungry and thirsty work. But wherever you go, whether you are buying meat or fruit or fish, always at your elbow is some itinerant child seeking to sell you something—it may be a paper bag, a comb, a pair of earrings, a looking glass. If you want none of these things, he has other equally attractive articles at equally attractive prices which lead to the delusion that Lima is a cheap place in which to live. The delusion is heightened by the yards upon yards of cheap cotton goods from Manchester and Tokio, by the hundreds of pairs of shoes from Argentina and Chile, overalls from Massachusetts, cutlery from Solingen, tinware from Birmingham, jewelry from Germany, all the shoddy from all the markets of the world, hung out for sale upon the stalls which line the inner walls of the building.

Every other market place in Lima or the suburbs is a replica in miniature of the Central Market. . . . The municipality maintains a strict vigilance over all meats and vegetables; its uniformed inspectors are on the alert from the opening to the closing hour.

There is another impression which the stranger visiting Lima for the first time can not fail to carry away with him. Peru imports certain articles of prime necessity which, with proper organization, might well be grown within her borders. Nevertheless, if war should close the world's granaries, Peru would not starve. She could feed herself, and feed herself well, on the harvests of her own fields and the cattle of her own hills.

## II. ITINERANT VENDORS AND STREET CRIES

Although much that is picturesque is passing away, the street cries of Lima, unlike those of old London, still survive. Some of those cries are common to all cities. At certain hours of the day, for instance, a great surge of sound sweeps through the streets in a steady



BOLOGNESI CIRCLE

One of the newer sections of the Peruvian capital.



crescendo until it seems to drown all other noises. It is the shrill voices of the newsboys crying the late morning or evening edition of some newspaper. Other cries, like the *para hoy, para hoy-y, último gauchito para hoy-y-y-y* (for to-day, for to-day, last ticket for to-day) will exist as long as lotteries are the mild gamble of our lives.

But if you lie awake in some by-street in the early hours of the morning, you may hear another variety of cries. They continue throughout the day, but as the city wakes to life, they become absorbed in other noises and pass almost unremarked. It is the voice of the itinerant vendors of food, hawking their wares in phrases often unintelligible to foreign ears, but which have been traditional for a hundred years or more. Many of these vendors are of Indian blood and look as if they had walked straight out of some hut in a remote Sierra village. Although not encouraged by the municipality, which likes to see the street merchant clad in spotless blouse and peaked cap, they still persist. They are a tradition in Lima, a tradition which many would regret to see swept entirely away by the incoming tide of hygiene.

Some of these itinerant vendors come into their own only at certain seasons of the year. Others are a daily feature of our lives. Among the most prominent of the latter class is the *bizcochero*, or seller of cakes, with his inviting cry of *pan de dulce, pan de dulce, empanaditas, pasteles*. Severe municipal regulations compel him to-day to sell his cookies in fly-screened cases, but he is recalcitrant when he dares to be. His most profitable sphere of commerce appears to be the entrances of cinemas and schools.

A strong competitor during the summer is the *heladero*, very modern to-day with his barrow and hygienic metal containers. He was not always so. From accounts of Lima written 70 or 80 years ago, we may read how, as a means of refreshing the blood, the eating of an ice was considered to be one of the first duties of the day. From the earliest hours of the morning, the vendors of ices paraded the streets and had an established clientèle to whom they brought the matutinal refresher. So important was the trade that those vendors had formed an *Unión de Heladeros* which was almost entirely composed of Indians, who in dialect shouted their passage through the streets with the cry of *el riqui piña y de leit* (delicious pineapple and milk). They have long since been swept out of existence by the commercially organized *heladerías* and the ice creams of D'Onofrio to-day. Nor do people any longer take a morning ice to cool the blood.

The *tamalero* is still with us. He is that exotic-looking individual, generally shod with rope-soled canvas sandals and often poncho clad, who sells mysterious little oblong packages wrapped in banana leaves and slung at the end of a short bamboo stick. He makes his wares known by the staccato cry of *Tamales! a medio, a medio, a medio!*

*Tamales serranos bien calientes!* The *tamal* has come down to us from the times of the Incas, and is still a national dish. Made of a mixture of crushed Indian corn, meat, and peppers, it is wrapped in leaves to maintain the heat and to preserve the flavor. Liking for *tamales* may be said to be an acquired taste. Those who wish to experiment are recommended to make their first essay in some restaurant which specializes in *criollo* dishes. The glorified *tamal* which is served there, usually has, in addition to the essential maize, young pigeons and eggs as the principal ingredients. So served they are delicious.

More numerous than the foregoing, and with wares more wholesome, are the *fruteros* and *fruterías*. Some of them wend their patient way through the motor-driven traffic of the streets mounted upon burros and bring to the doors of the houses fruits often fresher, cheaper, and more varied than those which are offered for sale in the markets. Others station themselves and their baskets on the street curbs or in the *portales* of the Plaza de Armas. . . . A very patient tribe this, Indians many of them, who own or rent the hundreds of little farms which run right up to the gates of Lima. Melons, avocados, cherries, oranges, mangos, and grapes are offered in their season at prices (subject to barter) which are tempting. . . .

Changing times have eliminated the majority of the old-time itinerant food merchants from the every-day life of the principal streets. But many of them still survive in the poorer parts of the city, especially across the river and in the neighborhood of the market places. One and all come to life again at the season of the great religious feasts. Walk through the arcades of the Plaza de Armas on Christmas Eve, at *Mi-carême*, at Eastertide, and you shall see their descendants selling much the same delicacies in much the same manner as 80 years ago. Or even better still, make your way as best you can to the Church of Las Nazarenas at the time of the annual processions of *El Señor de los Milagros* when every adjoining street is one long open-air restaurant and where all the traditional dishes which have come down from the days of the Incas are once more offered for sale. Here may be seen the *tisaneras*, or sellers of tisanes, whose stock-in-trade consists of an earthenware pot filled with dubious water in which float slices of pineapple, lemon, or other fruits. Here are also to be seen their first cousins, the vendors of cold beverages, whose habitat used to be the Portal de Escribanos in winter and the Portal de Botoneros in summer. Here, too, come in force the *buñueleros*, or sellers of *buñuelos*—fritters of all sorts, some of them the ancestor of the American waffle. The *chichera* is also present, selling *chicha* in all its variations, from the classic *sora* made from maize (but no longer from teeth-chewed maize) to *chicha* made from chick-peas and even from pineapples. . . .

# THE GOLD RIVERS OF HONDURAS

By A. HOOTON BLACKISTON

THE source of the great treasures of the Aztecs and other Indian nations, as well as of the fabulous amounts of gold obtained by the Spaniards after the discovery of America, has been the subject of much speculation.

The "lost" mines of early days have often been cited as an explanation. To a limited extent this is correct, as it is doubtlessly true that rich deposits were worked then and later lost to the world, being either hidden from the Spaniards or, if known to them, closed upon their expulsion from the New World when the colonies achieved their independence. Since the natives would not work them and the colonists could not, gradually cave-ins covered the mouths of shafts and tunnels, and trees grew over bonanza mines that had made the Spanish Main famous and furnished untold millions to the mother country.

However, the more easily operated and satisfactory placers, known to the Indians hundreds of years before the coming of Columbus, were the lodestones of attraction for both natives and Spaniards. It was the gold from their sands that gladdened the eyes of the *conquistadores*, and started the greatest gold rush in all history that made Spain the mistress of Europe and lifted the world from the slough of the Middle Ages.

The California stampede was a feeble thing in comparison, and that of the Klondike but an amoebic struggle of small consequence. Ancient civilizations were extinguished overnight, empires upset, whole nations stamped out and a continent enslaved in the mad rush that ensued.

Spain was fortunate in early realizing the value of her new possessions and in obtaining those regions where the precious metal was most abundant. Indeed, it was the desire for gold that dominated her early conquests and influenced her colonial policy, leaving its impress on history even to-day.

Among the most famous of the alluvial deposits from which untold riches were gathered were those of the gold rivers of Honduras, where Indian women, working in the sunshine of the highlands, had been washing the sands for uncounted years to obtain the bright metal which was prized only for its use in the fashioning of images for the gods and ornaments for men. An extensive traffic was carried on far into Mexico on the north and to the Isthmus of Darien on the



Photograph by A. Hooton Blackiston.

#### A TYPICAL RIVER OF HONDURAS

The sands and alluvial deposits along the banks of the upper reaches of many rivers of Honduras continue to yield gold in small quantities despite the fact that they have been worked for centuries.



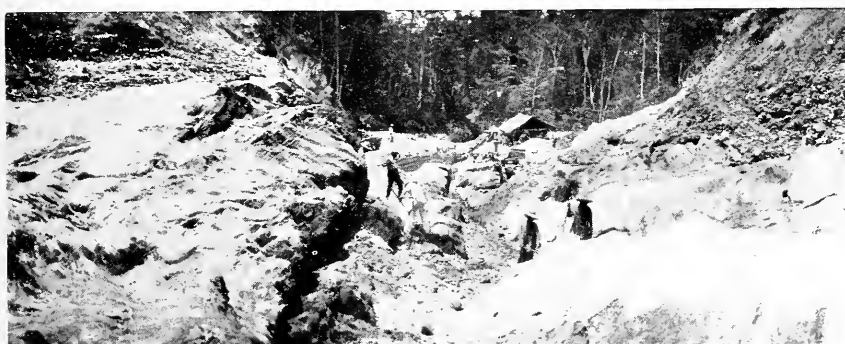
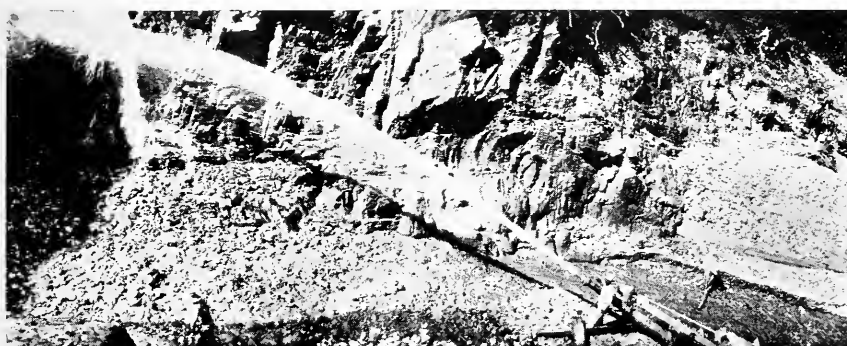
Photograph by A. Hooton Blackiston.

#### A VISITING LADY WATCHES THE "LAVANDERAS" AT WORK

The Indian "wash women" are shown using large wooden bowls to wash gold, a primitive method that has been employed through the ages.

south. So plentiful was this golden stream and other lesser ones that the Spaniards called the entire coast *Costa Rica*—the Rich Coast.

It can readily be understood that the *conquistadores* lost no time in tracing the precious flood to its source. Such was their avarice that they not only seized all the gold they could obtain from the natives and forced them to toil for more, but in addition, as iron was lacking, they tore the shoes from their horses and fashioned them into implements with which to dig, shoeing their mounts with gold



Photographs by A. Hooton Blackiston.

#### HYDRAULIC MINING IN HONDURAS

Modern equipment is employed in but few instances in the country. Upper: An isolated example of hydraulic mining in the western part of the Republic, near the Guatemalan border. Lower: When the giant hydraulic has finished, the bed of the stream, with its gold, lies bare.

instead, as it was the commoner though more valuable metal. It is reported that one such poorly equipped expedition alone sent out from Olancho more than \$120,000 in bullion. There is hardly a small stream but carries its quota of gold, and on the headwaters of the Almandares nuggets as large as 100 ounces have been found.

Because of the unusually rich stringers or small veins that permeate the river banks, and because of the heavy rainfall and the ensuing erosion characteristic of the tropics, especially in the mountainous

sections, gold is continually being added to the available supply, not only by the rivers themselves but also by many of the small creeks and arroyos opening into them.

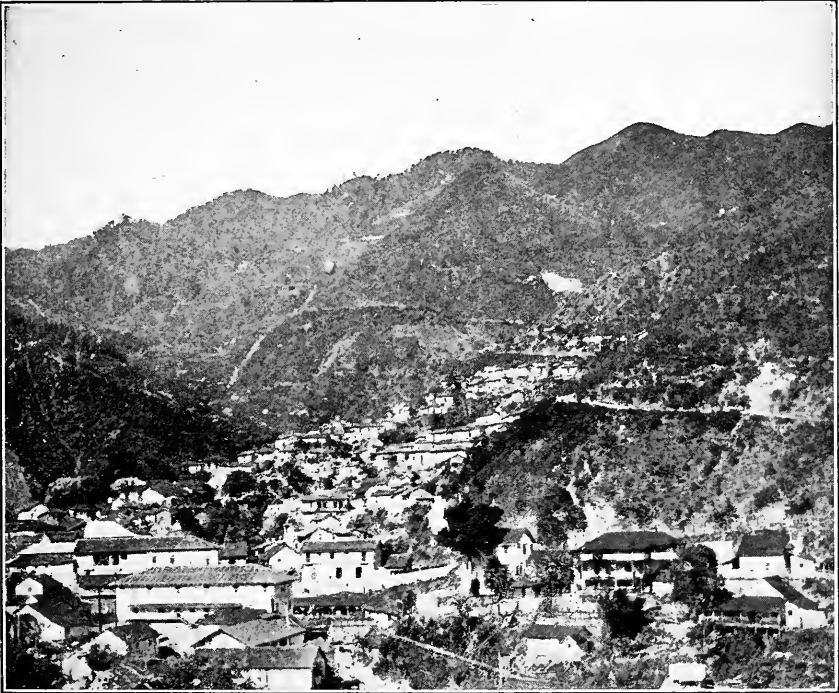
For generations the banks and bars of these streams have been washed by Indian women, known to the Spaniards as *lavanderas* (wash women), among whom the occupation seems to be more or less hereditary, and quite a patrimony it is that has come down to them through the ages. In the morning hours or in the late afternoon they may be seen standing in the streams or sitting on the banks gayly chatting while working with their *bateas*, or wooden bowls. In these they wash the sands for the golden particles, which at night they carefully store in quills or wrap in leaves. It is especially on Sunday morning that many of the favorable spots ring with animated laughter and splashing that echo along the banks and from the canyon walls, clearly notifying one long before one comes within sight that the *lavanderas* are at work. At nightfall they throw their personal belongings into the large bowls, and placing the bowls on their heads they stroll home looking like huge mushrooms in the gathering dusk.

Indeed, the entire affair seems to be somewhat three-cornered, as gossiping, washing of clothes, and washing of gold are more or less indiscriminately intermingled, a good time being had by all present irrespective of the more material results of the gathering. However, they seldom give that feature any undue worry, as the returns are fairly satisfactory despite the crude methods employed and the limited time devoted to the work. Usually the women go home with enough to meet their simple needs, and the so-called gold villages are largely supported by them. The output is purchased by the local storekeepers, or traded for goods, and credit is often extended the *lavandera* against her next season's crop, as it were, with far more willingness than our own agriculturists encounter under similar circumstances.

The men, while not lazy, consider it beneath their dignity to wash gold as it is too much like working with the women in the domestic affairs of the home. Consequently it is an occupation to be strictly avoided by all males conscious of their more exalted sphere, though the inhibition naturally does not extend to spending the proceeds. It is sometimes amusing to note the shamefaced actions of some rash youth who has stolen off surreptitiously to wash a little gold on his own account. One such was throwing a number of good sized nuggets on the gaming table when a mining engineer who happened to be present asked him where he had obtained them, and offered to buy any more that he might have left. The boy seemed very much embarrassed, but after taking the engineer to one side in order that his friends might not hear the damaging confession, he stated that the nuggets had been washed from a certain near-by stream where he occasionally went for gold when he was hard up. He added apologetically, "But, Señor, it

is not work for a man!" Indeed I sometimes suspect that the wise *lavanderas* purposely confuse the family washing with the washing of gold in order to keep the latter monopoly in their own hands, and thus to control the output—at least during the preliminary stages.

Sometimes a few hours of leisurely work with the bowl nets the gold washers up to a dollar or a dollar and a half, and occasionally that much is taken from one pan. They seldom wash over 15 or 20 bowlfuls of sand, and as there are 104 bowlfuls in 1 cubic yard, the result is not at all bad. Fortune at times selects certain individuals



THE MINING TOWN OF SAN JUANCITO

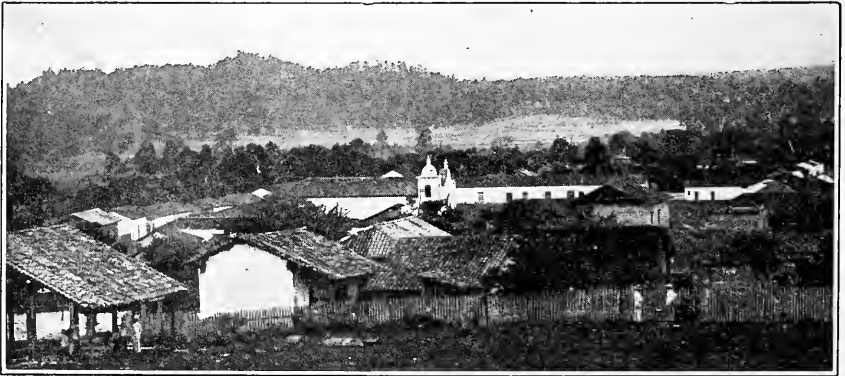
This village lies just below the famous mine of Rosario, which has been the chief contributor to the country's production of gold and silver.

as recipients of her special smiles, or ambition or necessity spurs the *lavandera* to unusual efforts—then the results are often spectacular. One old woman complacently ensconced on the bank of a small stream washed out \$140 worth in one day, while in another location a group began operations far up a bank 20 feet above mean water, where any old mining man would tell you that nothing could be found. In six days they took out several pounds of gold. For many nights there were not quills enough in the community to hold the yellow grains, and leaves had to be drawn on liberally instead. Another

group of 16 women and girls are said to have washed out about \$21,000 worth of gold in less than three weeks' work. The total taken from the rivers and streams of Honduras by the *lavanderas* alone is reported to amount to as much as \$125,000 a year. This may be considered a good showing, when it is remembered that the work is carried on as part of the family régime and by the crudest of methods only. At this rate approximately \$50,000,000 would have been recovered by the Indian women since the Conquest, irrespective of more intensive operations by the Spaniards. And as yet the true stores of treasure locked within the auriferous sands and gravels may be said to be practically untouched!

Strange as it may seem, the placers have never been worked on an extensive scale along modern lines, although engineers have often pronounced them to be among the world's great alluvial fields. The unknown state of the country, the lack of transportation and the control of vast tracts by a few persons account for this. Likewise it never has been a poor man's country in the mining sense, however much it may have proved to be a poor woman's as far as the *lavanderas* are concerned.

And so it is that while the rest of the world is worrying about the gold standard and striving to stave starvation from its door, nature has given the natives of Honduras an unlimited credit in a bank of her own to be drawn upon as necessity dictates. Thus did their ancestors when they washed the golden sands for the glory of ancient dynasties long before the first floating houses appeared off their coasts or the tread of the Spaniard was heard in the land.





# FEMINISM IN ARGENTINA <sup>1</sup>

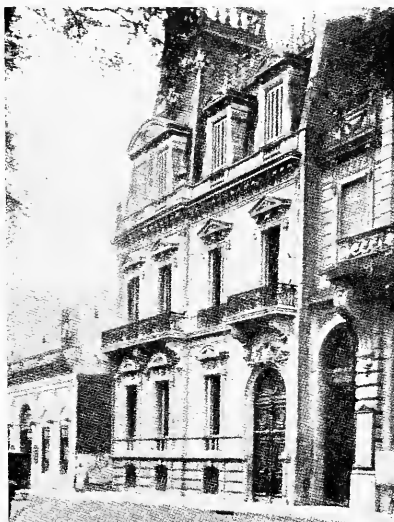
By ADA STROZZI

IT WAS in 1906 that the first steps were taken toward a complete program of Argentine women's rights, for that year witnessed the organization in Buenos Aires of the *Centro Feminista*, under the presidency of Dr. Elvira Rawson de Dellepiane. Twenty years later the efforts of this society and of other feminist bodies bore fruit in the civil rights act based on a petition which Dr. Alfredo L. Palacios had long since presented to Congress on behalf of the Centro.

By this act of 1926 the unmarried woman, widow, and divorced woman were given, with slight exceptions, all the civil rights of men. A married woman gained many rights which she had hitherto not enjoyed: she was permitted to be the guardian of her children by a former marriage, to engage in a profession, trade, employment, commerce, or industry without the necessity of authorization from her husband, to dispose freely of her own property, inherited or earned, and to exercise other analogous rights.

Now that the Argentine woman's civil position has been assured for six years, the feminist movement is directed with renewed energy toward securing the suffrage. Señora Carmela Horne de Burmeister is president of the newest society, the Argentine Association for Woman Suffrage, organized only last December. Additional strength has recently been given to the movement by the support of the important National Council of Women (well known for its educational work), which finds the time ripe for demanding the vote.

Since 1823, when Bernardino Rivadavia intrusted to a group of prominent women, organized as the *Sociedad de Beneficencia*, the official protection and education of girls, the members of this society, with ever increasing prestige, have performed valuable services in



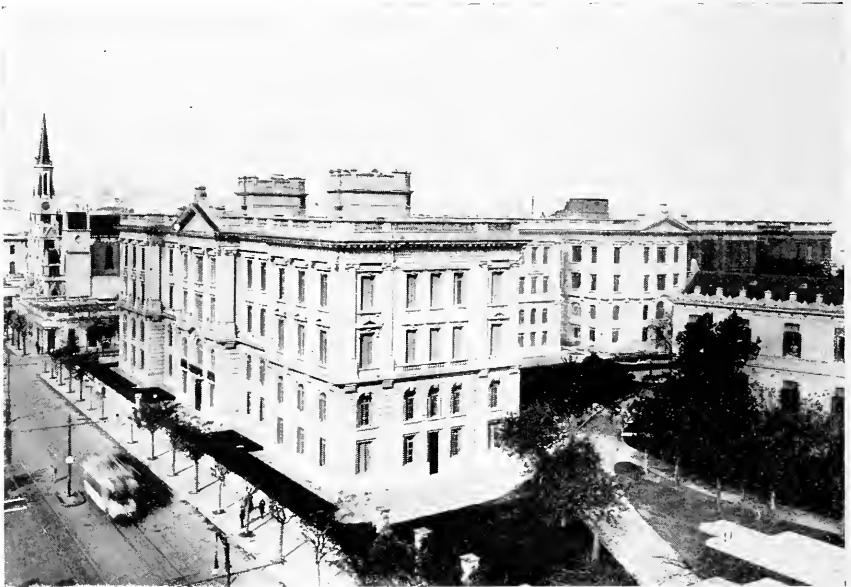
BUILDING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN

Here this society of prominent women houses its library and allied departments in Buenos Aires.

<sup>1</sup> Translated and adapted from "Caras y Caretas," Buenos Aires, May 28, 1932.

conducting numerous hospitals and schools. It is needless to say, however, that the pioneer feminists met with many difficulties in breaking down the traditional concept that women should not intervene in political matters. There were women as well as men in disagreement with them, but the movement gradually gained in strength. The *Centro* changed its name to the Association for Women's Rights and for years continued its work to secure not only civil rights but the suffrage.

The feminists did not confine themselves, however, merely to seeking their "rights"; they were active in social welfare work for women



MATERNITY INSTITUTE, BUENOS AIRES

This institute is but one of the social welfare projects maintained in Argentina by the "Sociedad de Beneficencia," an organization of women, more than 100 years old.

and children. Among the projects which they advocated were: Higher salaries for teachers; workers' housing; reduced prices for articles of prime necessity; seaside camps for sickly children the year round, instead of during vacations only; branch libraries; maternity homes and benefits; newsboys' dormitories; school lunches; and day nurseries for the children of employed mothers.

Notable among suffragists was the late Dr. Julieta Lanteri, who in 1912 founded the League for Women's and Children's Rights, and in 1918 the National Feminist Party. In 1919 Doctor Lanteri offered herself as a candidate for deputy to the Federal Congress and some months later ran for the office of city councilor in Buenos Aires.

For years she continued thus to educate the public. Bravely confronting the scarecrow of ridicule so feared by the poor spirited, she was an indefatigable worker for feminist ideals. Unmoved by mockery or insult, she gave herself no rest during campaigns, but spoke in every section of Buenos Aires, making use indifferently of a balcony, a park bench, a theater stage—all rostrums from which to spread her ideas. Her platforms, be it said in passing, would have done honor to any party.

It should also be recalled that to Doctor Lanteri was due the organization of the first Pan American Child Congress, held in Buenos Aires in 1916. Other congresses of this nature have assembled with growing importance and usefulness, the sixth having taken place in Lima in 1930. This is but one of many monuments to a life recently closed.

Another feminist organization besides those already named was started in 1930 by Dr. Alicia Moreau de Justo under the name of the Women's Suffrage Committee, to succeed an earlier society also founded by her. This committee carried on active propaganda for suffrage through its review, *Nuestra Causa* (Our Cause), and by lectures, motion pictures, pamphlets, and handbills. Doctor Justo, it may be added, has been an interested observer of what women in the United States are doing in politics and public life.

In the long list of Argentine feminists mention must be made of Gabriela L. de Coni, their early inspiration and guide; Cecilia Grier-son, the first woman physician; Carmen Barreda, the first woman lawyer; Ernestina and Elvira López, doctors of philosophy; Sara Justo, dentist; Adelia Di Carlo, who 25 years ago opened the profession of journalism to women; and the Argentine Association of University Women, which in 1910 sponsored the International Women's Congress, held with great success in Buenos Aires.



## ARGENTINA PORTS



Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation

### THE PORT OF BUENOS AIRES

In the section known as the New Port, the Government is effecting port improvements on more than 600 acres of made land; when these are finished, 11 trans-Atlantic vessels may be docked at once.



Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation

### THE PORT OF ROSARIO

Rosario is second only to Buenos Aires in the amount of commerce that passes through her port.

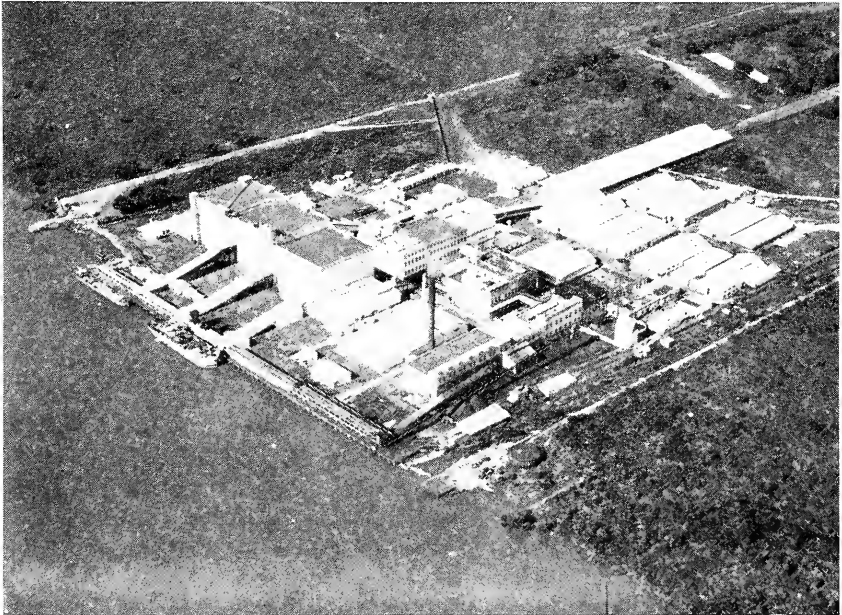
## AND INDUSTRIES



Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation

### THE PORT OF SANTA FE

During the past year 291 vessels of 677,615 tonnage entered Santa Fe, on the Parana River, fifth in importance among Argentine ports.

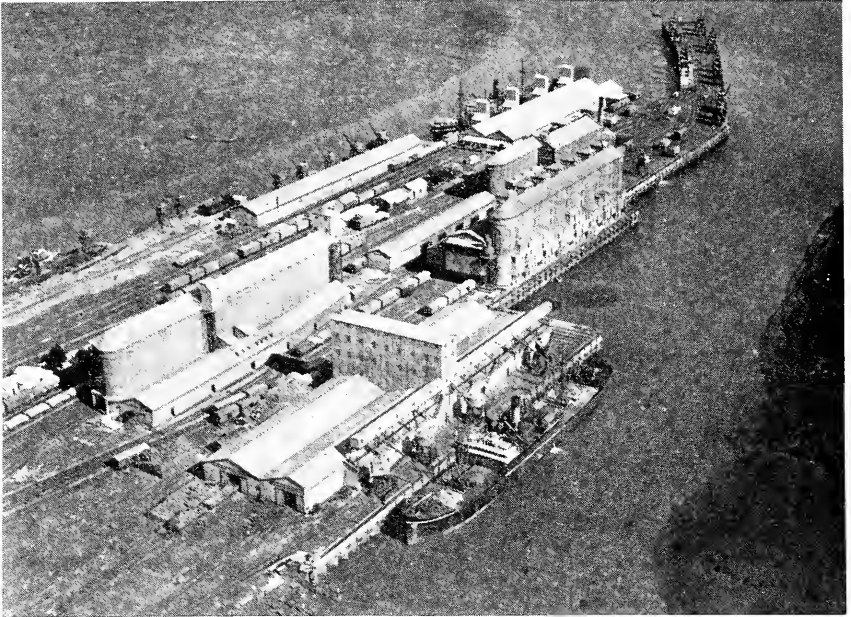


Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation

### PACKING PLANT ON THE PARANA RIVER

Argentina is one of the sources of the world's meat supply; in 1931 her exports of meats and meat products were valued at \$218,705,673.

## ARGENTINA PORTS



Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation

### GRAIN ELEVATORS AT GALVÁN

The port of Galván, 5 miles from the city of Bahía Blanca, on the Atlantic coast, is the property of the Bahía Blanca and Northwestern Railway, leased to the Great Southern Railway.

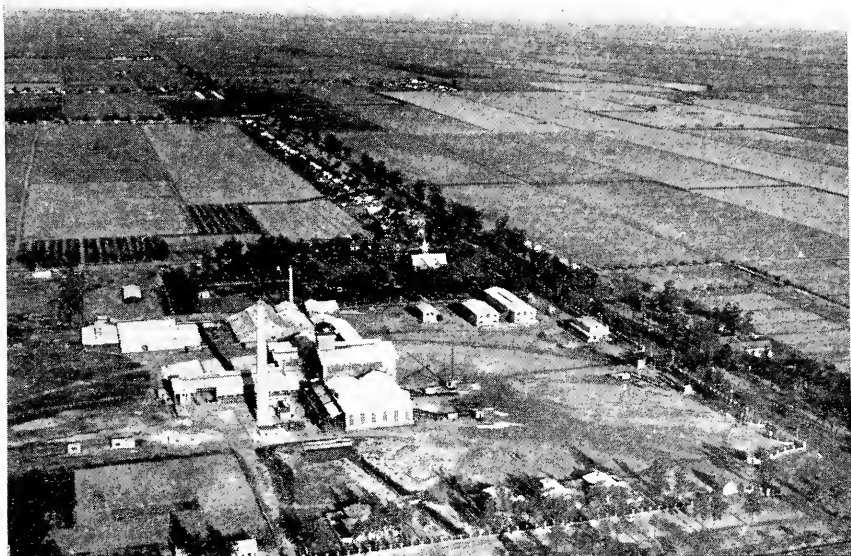


### OIL FIELDS, COMODORO RIVADAVIA

Argentine petroleum requirements are partially filled by the production of three oil regions, of which Comodoro Rivadavia is the largest.



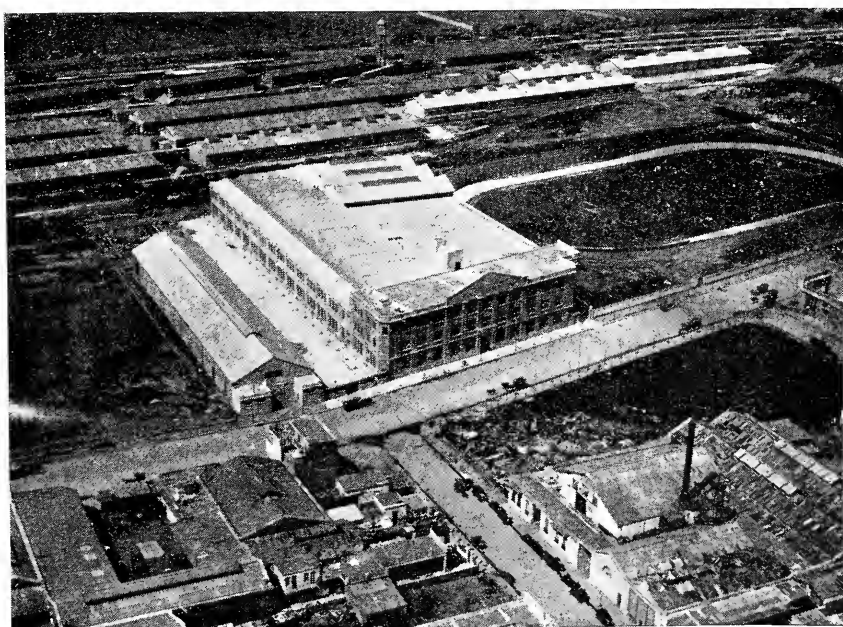
## AND INDUSTRIES



Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation.

### SUGAR REFINERY AT TUCUMÁN

In the northern Provinces Argentina grows much sugarcane. During 1931 there were exported 4,041 tons of sugar, valued at 690,114 pesos.



Courtesy of International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation.

### A JUTE FACTORY

Argentina imported jute fiber, jute bagging, and sewing twine valued at \$17,154,523 during 1930.

# PAN AMERICAN DAY, 1932

By ENRIQUE CORONADO SUÁREZ

*Assistant Editor, BOLETÍN de la Unión Panamericana*

On April 14, 1932, the capitals of all the 21 Republics of the Western Hemisphere were gay with flags announcing the second continental celebration of Pan American Day. This date was suggested by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union and set apart by the Governments of the 21 American Republics to recall the community of interests, the unity of sentiments and aspirations, the ties of history, and the intimate relationships between the members of this group of free peoples. The 14th of April was chosen as the day for the annual commemoration of American solidarity because it was on that date in 1890 that the First International Conference of American States passed the resolution creating the International Bureau of American Republics, which has since developed into the Pan American Union.

As in 1931, the Presidents of the American Republics issued decrees exhorting their fellow citizens to observe Pan American Day with due ceremony. Accordingly, city councils, public and private schools, civic and cultural organizations arranged to commemorate the day with ceremonies expressing sentiments of friendship and mutual understanding between the peoples of America. In these ceremonies the noble ideals of Pan Americanism were once more emphasized, ideals which nowadays have to do with the development and growth of commercial relations; the promotion of intellectual interchange, both of students and professors, and of scientific and literary production; the adoption of sanitary measures for the protection of public health and maritime trade; homage to the great heroes of the New World; the holding of conferences and congresses covering almost all fields of human activity; the codification of international law; and the promotion of the American principles of the pacific settlement of international disputes—in short, all the means conducive to closer material and intangible relationships between these sister nations, recalling that true friendship and harmony between peoples is attained only by strengthening those ties which tend to human welfare and happiness, and following the well-known phrase of William Jennings Bryan who said, "God has made us neighbors; let justice make us friends."

Pan Americanism must adapt itself to present conditions, and in its practical manifestations endeavor to solve the problems which contribute to closer relationships and fuller mutual knowledge between the American nations, and also set up useful standards for the conduct of practical activities of general interest. Since the celebration of



Pan American Day has to do especially with students in schools and universities, that is, with the rising generation, it offers a valuable opportunity for deepening interest in, and respect for, our sister Republics through a more thorough knowledge of their culture, ideals, institutions, customs, sources of wealth, and natural beauty.

In Washington, D. C., the second celebration of Pan American Day took on special significance since this was the year when the bicentenary of the birth of George Washington was being celebrated throughout the land. As described in the *BULLETIN* for July of this year, on April 14 the ambassadors, ministers, and *chargés d'affaires* of the Latin American Republics made a solemn pilgrimage to Mount



PAN AMERICAN DAY CELEBRATION IN WASHINGTON

The program of the official celebration of the second Pan American Day in Washington included a colorful ceremony on the Ellipse. After the flags of the American Republics had been raised to the strains of their national anthems and saluted by artillery fire, an address was made by Vice President Curtis to the assemblage of students.

Vernon, and before Washington's tomb read special messages sent for the occasion by their respective Chiefs of Government. This is considered one of the most notable tributes paid this year to Washington.

At half past 2 that same day, in the beautiful park opposite the Pan American Union, a colorful ceremony took place in which representatives of schools and universities in the capital took part under the direction of the Hon. L. H. Reichelderfer, president of the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia. The guest of honor on that occasion was the Hon. Charles Curtis, Vice President of the United States. At the opening of the ceremonies the Army

Band played the national hymn of each American Republic and the national flag of that nation was slowly unfurled. After the 21 flags were fluttering in the April breezes, Mr. Reichelderfer spoke for the District of Columbia of the importance of the anniversary, saying: "Pan American Day and its observance throughout the American Continent is destined to become the outward symbol of that great spirit of friendship and mutual understanding of which the Western World is to-day the outstanding example." He then introduced the Vice President, who gave a brilliant address dealing with the relations between the nations of the New World during more than a century, in which he said:

The message which I bring to you is intended for the younger generation throughout the Western World. It is to you that we must look for the fulfillment of those purposes and ideals for which the founders of our Republics struggled and for which subsequent generations have been called to make unending sacrifices. . . .

Every student of the history of the New World is impressed with the fact that the founders of the American Republics, almost without exception, saw clearly the importance of unity of purpose and action among the nations of America and, what is even more important, that such unity can only rest upon mutual confidence and constructive cooperation. Each of the Liberators of America contributed his share to this great purpose. . . .

As I review the relations between the United States and our sister Republics, I am more and more impressed with the importance of having governmental action supplemented by private effort in the development of closer inter-American understanding. Upon the youth of the Americas rests the major responsibility of fostering an atmosphere of good will in which the possibility of inter-American misunderstanding will be reduced to a minimum.

The outdoor ceremonies closed with a program of selected pieces of Latin-American music, many of which were based on themes indigenous to the New World. The ceremony was transmitted by radio not only throughout the United States, but also to the nations of Latin America through the short-wave channels of the National Broadcasting Co. and the Columbia circuit, as well as to 72 stations in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland over a special connection from Schenectady. In the evening a gala concert of Latin-American music was given in the ballroom of the Pan American Union by the United Service Orchestra. The well-known Guatemalan soprano, Aida Doninelli, of the Metropolitan Opera Co., was the soloist; her gracious manner and delightful voice captivated the distinguished audience.

At the Pan American Union there was also an interesting exhibit of six paintings by Mexican school children; these were sent especially for this occasion and later were distributed among other American nations.

The Hon. Hiram Bingham opened the session of the Senate on April 14 with an address in honor of the occasion. The senator em-

phasized especially the spiritual and moral significance of the day, and after calling attention to the notable record made in the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes, closed with this expression of the importance of continental understanding, "By giving to the world the inspiring example of an international system resting on the idea of cooperation and mutual service, the American republics will best be able to fulfill the high mission which they are called upon to perform."

In the House of Representatives the Hon. Charles Linthicum, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, delivered an eloquent address dealing with Pan American Day, indicating the great progress which has been made in the relations between the nations of the Western Hemisphere since the meeting of the First International Conference of American States in 1890, as well as stressing the important services of the Pan American Union in promoting these relations of friendship and good will.

But the celebration of Pan American Day in the United States was not limited to the capital alone. In all the large cities, as well as in many of the smaller towns, impressive ceremonies took place.

In New York the Pan American Society held a special meeting in the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel. The guests of honor were the consuls general and consulate staffs of all the American Republics. More than 1,800 students from the universities, public schools, and other educational institutions of New York were also present. The guests of honor were His Excellency Dr. Orestes Ferrara, the ambassador of Cuba and then vice chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, who spoke upon "The Influence of American ideas;" Dr. Stephen P. Duggan, director of the International Institute of Education, whose subject was "Cultural Cooperation with Latin America," and Señor Alejandro T. Bollini, consul general of Argentina, whose address dealt with "Pan Americanism and Pan American Day." Mr. John L. Merrill, president of the society, presided at the luncheon and the entire program was broadcast throughout the Nation. In many of the more important schools of the city commemorative exercises were held at which eminent Pan Americanists addressed the students.

At the beginning of the spring term of 1932, the Board of Education of New York City announced that a prize to be known as the Bolívar-San Martín Medal would be awarded this June at commencement time and in future years on Pan American Day to the student of each public school having a Pan American club who, in the opinion of the principal, had contributed most to promoting the Pan American ideal in the school. This medal is offered by the Pan American Society of the United States under the auspices of the Pan American Student League of New York. At the same time, the San Francisco chapter of that society offered two prizes, one of \$40 and the other of \$20, to

the students of a Hispano-American university who present the best essays on the subject "Towards Inter-American Friendship."

The Pan American Student League of New York, which at present has 34 chapters, took part for the first time in this celebration under the auspices of the Pan American Society, and at the same time organized a series of exercises in the different schools belonging to the league. As a contribution to the celebration one of the chapters organized a Pan American exhibition in which were represented the principal commercial and artistic organizations interested in Latin America. The exhibition remained open for a month and showed models of telegraph systems, maps, pictures by American artists, samples of mineral and agricultural products, books, magazines, flags, and other objects of special interest.

At the University of Miami, the celebration of Pan American Day began with a general gathering of the students at which guests and professors of the Latin American department spoke on the ideal of brotherhood which this day commemorates. The speakers included Mr. Arthur E. Curtis, representative of the Pan American Airways, and the consul of Guatemala, whose subject was "International Aviation as a Factor of Pan-Americanism," and Dr. Rafael Belaúnde, a member of the faculty, who discussed "Youth and Pan-Americanism."

At noon a banquet with 400 guests was held at which Dr. Rafael Belaúnde, sr., professor of the economic geography of South America at the University, explained briefly the significance of the date and the bases and ideals of Pan-Americanism, explaining the origin of the day and the efforts so far made to convert these ideals into reality. He especially mentioned the important labors of the Pan American Union, whose almost half-century of development he summarized briefly. Mr. Edward Tomlinson, a well-known journalist, pictured to his audience the culture, beauty, and high future of Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, and Peru. Dr. Gonzalo J. Gallegos, consul of Costa Rica, spoke appreciatively in the name of his Latin American colleagues. An exposition of Latin American products was opened to show the varied geographic characteristics and the manifold wealth of our neighbors to the south.

At the University of Washington, in Seattle, students of history, foreign trade, languages, and similar subjects met to hear addresses delivered by Dr. David Thomson, vice president of the university, and Señores Carlos García Prada and Ulpiano Borja, consuls of Columbia and Ecuador respectively. During the ceremony, at which a special orchestra played several selections of Pan American music, a portrait of the Liberator, Simón Bolívar, was presented to the university by the consul of Columbia. The occasion was also

notable because of the presence of the consular representatives of 13 American republics.

Many other schools and universities in the United States celebrated the day of Pan American brotherhood with great enthusiasm. Among these were Tulane and George Washington Universities and the Universities of Arizona, Missouri, Illinois, and California, as well as other educational institutions whose ceremonies were dignified and impressive.

The Pan American Society chapters in San Francisco and Los Angeles also observed Pan American Day with fitting ceremonies at which, as in New York, the guests of honor were the consular representatives of the Latin American nations. Another expression of Pan American friendship was the ceremony in New Orleans where Señor Diego Matute Ruiz, consul general of Venezuela, presented a portrait of Simón Bolívar to the city.

From this account of the celebration of Pan American Day in the United States, it is evident that there exists a strong feeling of inter-American cooperation which was especially pronounced in the celebration this year. Diplomatic and consular representatives participated wherever possible in celebrations. Speakers were chosen from outstanding figures in the field of international relations. The concerts and literary and artistic gatherings dealt with all the nations of the Western Hemisphere, and the exhibitions which were held included native products of these nations and material relating to the progress and varied activities of the New World of Columbus.

From the vast amount of correspondence received at the Pan American Union, as well as from comments in the press throughout the Americas, it is evident that the commemoration of Pan American Day in the nations of Central and South America and the Antilles, was more than a gesture. Especially in the schools and educational institutions emphasis was placed upon the true significance of the day and of the importance to the nations of this continent that the bonds of friendship and brotherhood with which the nations are united in the spheres of education, commerce, industry, and good will, should be increasingly closer.

The celebrations included many addresses appropriate to the occasion by eminent educators and internationalists; the exchange between students of one country and their colleagues in other nations of correspondence and albums containing information as to the physical, economic, and historical aspects of their respective countries; and the class-room preparation of such material as historical sketches of the American nations or information about their most notable heroes. In one of the nations of South America, schools bearing the names of sister republics or of their heroes prepared special studies

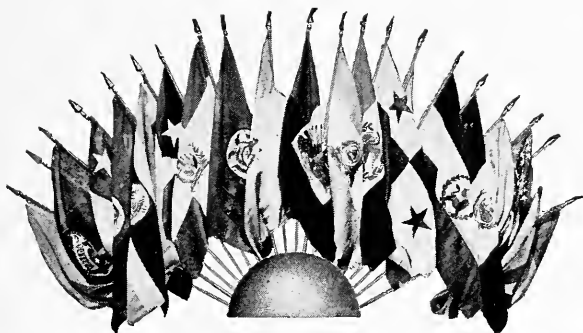
on the progress and attractions of those countries. These were sent to the Ministry of Education to be forwarded to other school children through the same department in the countries concerned. In another nation a message of friendship was broadcast by one student in each school named for another American Republic, to the students of that nation. In other schools literary gatherings were held and exhibits arranged of native American products as well as of scientific and educational works to instruct the coming generations in the progress, culture, and customs of these sister nations. In every case musical programs were prepared and the national hymns of the American republics played.



PUBLIC SCHOOL CHILDREN IN MEXICO ON PAN AMERICAN DAY

Special mention should be made of the valuable cooperation of the city governments to make the occasion a success, for all of them passed resolutions calling upon school authorities to awaken in the students enthusiasm for the celebration of Pan American Day and ordered that on the public buildings the national flag should be flown.

In view of the interest which the celebration of this day has aroused, it is only natural to hope that in the years to come these relations may become increasingly closer, especially now that the great advances in aviation, telegraphy, broadcasting, and other means of communication have contributed not only to shorten distance and to awaken a spirit of closer union between neighboring countries, but also to diminish the sense of frontiers between sister nations.



## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Argentine literary awards.*—The awards for 1928 of the annual literary competition in Argentina have recently been made. The first prize of 30,000 pesos went to Dr. Arturo Capdevila for his book *Babel y el Castellano*. The second and third prizes, of 20,000 and 10,000 pesos, were awarded respectively to B. Fernández Moreno for his *Poetas* and *Décimas* and to Dr. Alejandro M. Unsáin, author of *Legislación del Trabajo*. *Los Gauchos* and *Los Buscadores de Oro*, written by Juan Dávalos, were recommended by one judge for the second prize. The judges for the contest were Dr. Clodomiro Zavallía, Dr. Gastón F. Tobal, Dr. Alfredo Franceschi, Sr. Coriolano Alberini and Sr. Alfonso Lafferrère.

*Research in the Columbus Memorial Library.*—Instead of the usual reduction in demands on the library during the summer vacation period the demands have increased this season, largely because of the several seminars on Latin American affairs now in session throughout the country, but particularly because of that held at George Washington University. Each student taking the course is required to present a paper on some Latin American subject. Many of these papers are being prepared with the use of sources in the library, whose staff is glad to offer all possible assistance to students.

*Accessions.*—In the course of the past month the library received 341 volumes and pamphlets, among which the following are to be specially noted:

*Segundo Congreso Nacional de Alcaldes.* Celebrado en Santiago en enero del año 1931. Recopilación de sus antecedentes, trabajos presentados, conclusiones aprobadas y demás documentos de su desarrollo. Santiago de Chile, Imprenta Lagunas & Quevedo Ltda., 1931. 526 p. 8°.

*Antología de narradores del Uruguay.* Reyes, Vavala Muniz, Espinola, Cione, Viana, Acosta y Lara, Acevedo Díaz, García Saiz, Giordano, de Castro, con anotaciones de Juan M. Filartigas. Montevideo, Editorial Albatros, 1930. 144 p. 12°.

*Historia de la esclavitud de los indios en el Nuevo Mundo*, seguida de la historia de los repartimientos y encomiendas. Por José Antonio Saco. Tomo 2. Habana, Cultural, S. A., 1932. 356 p. 12°. (Colección de libros cubanos, Vol. 29.)

*Labor universitaria.* Serie de conferencias científicas dictadas en el paraninfo, del 10 de Septiembre al 10 de Octubre de 1931. [San Salvador], Publicaciones del Ministerio de instrucción pública, 1931. 226 p. 8°.

*Catálogo de la Biblioteca Nacional*, arreglado por materias, según el sistema "Dewey decimal." Por Rafael García Escobar. Tomo 2. San Salvador, Imprenta "La Salvadoreña", [1932]. 479 p. 8°.

*El Libertador Simón Bolívar y la independencia de América.* Tomo 1. [Por] Camilo Jiménez y Ricardo Portocarrero. Biblioteca Bolivariana. Caracas, Editorial "Elite," 1931. 298 p. illus. 4°.

*Forgotten frontiers; a study of the Spanish Indian policy of Don Juan Bautista de Anza, Governor of New Mexico 1777-1787.* From the original documents in the archives of Spain, Mexico, and New Mexico. Translated into English, edited and annotated by Alfred Barnaby Thomas. Norman, University of Oklahoma Press, 1932. 420 p. maps. 8°.

*Gobernadores de Antioquia, 1571-1819.* [Por] José María Restrepo Sáenz. Bogotá, Imprenta Nacional, 1931. 378 p. 8°.

*El el congreso admirable de 1930 a 1931.* (Otras Labores) [Por] J. R. Lanao Loaiza. Bogotá, Imprenta Nacional, 1931. 116 p. 8°.

*Juárez: una interpretación humana.* [Por] J. M. Puig Casauranc. Mexico, 1928. 58 p. illus. 4°.

*Derecho constitucional ecuatoriano.* [Por] Rodrigo Jacome Moscoso. Quito, Imprenta de la Universidad Central, 1931. 603 p. 8°.

*Les sauvages américains devant le droit.* Par Rodrigo Octavio. Paris, Librairie du Recueil Sirey, 1931. 116 p. 8°. (Académie de Droit International établie avec le concours de la dotation Carnegie pour la paix internationale.)

*The comparative system of education in Mexico.* By Cameron Duncan Ebaugh. Baltimore, 1931. 149 p. (The Johns Hopkins University studies in education, No. 16. Edited by Florence E. Bamberger.)

*Bosquejo histórico de la agregación a México de Chiapas y Soconusco* y de las negociaciones sobre límites entabladas por México con Centro América y Guatemala. Por Andrés Clemente Vásquez. México, Publicaciones de la Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, 1932. 661 p. 8°. (Archivo histórico diplomático mexicano, Núm. 36.)

*Aztatlán*, prehistoric Mexican frontier on the Pacific coast. By Carl Sauer and Donald Brand. Berkeley, University of California Press, 1932. 92 p. maps. plates. 8°. (Ibero-Americana: 1.)

*The comparative ethnology of northern Mexico before 1750.* By Ralph L. Beals. Berkeley, University of California Press, 1932. 93-225 p. maps. 8°. (Ibero-Americana: 2.)

*Churubusco-Huitzilopochco.* Texto de los profesores Lic. Ramón Mena y Nicolas Rangel . . . México, Departamento Universitario y de Bellas Artes, 1931. 71 p. plates. 8°.

*Diccionario histórico y biográfico de Chile.* Por Virgilio Figueroa, Tomo 1, 1800-1925. Tomo 2-3, 1800-1928. Santiago de Chile, Establecimientos gráficos Balcells & Co., 1925-1929. 8°. 3 vols.



New periodicals reaching the library during the past month for the first time are as follows:

*Information Bulletin on Intellectual Corporation* (League of Nations' International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation). Paris (M), Vol. 1, No. 1, April, 1932. 32 p. 6¼ by 9¼ inches.

*Revista Parlamentaria* (Legislación nacional, provincial y extranjera, administración pública, asuntos municipales, vialidad, economía y finanzas). Calle Corrientes 435, Buenos Aires. Año 1, No. 1, Abril de 1932. 160 p. 6¼ by 9 inches.

*Revista Pro-Turismo y de Acción Económica del Estado de Hidalgo*. Pachuca, Estado de Hidalgo, Mexico. (M), Vol. 1, No. 3, Junio de 1932. 16 p. 9 by 11 inches. illus.

*Quipus* (Publicado por la Dirección de Educación Indígena del Ministerio de Instrucción Pública del Perú). Lima (M), Año 1, No. 1, Octubre de 1931. 16 p. 9 by 13 inches. illus.

*Aguas e Irrigación* (Organo de la Dirección de Aguas e Irrigación). Lima. (M), Año 1, No. 1, May 15, 1932. 8 by 11 inches. 104 p. illus.

*O Cafe* (Revista mensal dedicada a lavoura, commercio e industria do cafe). Rua Direita, 6, 1º andar, São Paulo, Brasil. (M), Anno 2, Vol. 6, No. 5, Maio, 1932. 62 p. 7¼ by 10½ inches. illus.



# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## AGRICULTURE

*The Department of Agriculture of Ecuador.*—The field organization of the Department of Agriculture of ECUADOR is described in a recently received issue of the magazine *Nariz del Diablo*. The functions of this branch of the department may be classified, so the article says, under three general headings—protection, experimentation, and publicity and promotion.

In the first group come the establishment of quarantine services, supervision over the importation of animals, plants, and seeds, the waging of sanitary campaigns, and the guardianship (as the name indicates) over agriculture in the fullest sense of the word. The second division, experimentation, includes activities of the greatest importance carried on especially to secure data, which may be used commercially, on all the field or laboratory agricultural operations. This is considered indispensable for establishing a sound national agrarian policy. Under the third and last heading come what might be called the finishing touches, since their aim is to disseminate the best methods, the most economical and profitable procedure, and, in fine, any helpful information gathered by trained experience in other branches of the department.

All these activities are done under the supervision of the General Bureau of Agriculture at Quito and the littoral and Azuay offices at Guayaquil and Cuenca, respectively, together with their allied institutions.

Under the classification of protection and defense come the following establishments: The animal quarantine station at Eloy Alfaro (1927); the plant quarantine field at Isla de Silva (1930); three tick-eradication dipping vats at Conocoto (1928), Songolqui (1929), and Uyumbicho (1930); and the Bureau of Plant and Animal Sanitary Inspection of Guayaquil, which has control over exports. At present the construction of other dipping vats in various Provinces of the Republic is being considered. Final touches are being given, also, to a bill whose provisions include the regulation of the national veterinary service, the combating of cryptogamic diseases of plants, and the establishment of a committee to study appropriate legislation.

The difficult and complicated problem of cacao may be used as illustration. Two diseases of the plant, *Monilia* and witchbroom, have been causing great damage to plantations, and the department

is attacking the task with vigor. It is depending upon the research of agronomists working under contract, especially that of Señor Vignes, a specialist in plant genetics. At Isla de Silva and at least one experimental farm in the Province of Los Rios, experiments in cultivation as well as in disease prevention are to be undertaken, without losing sight of the possibility of obtaining resistant, if not immune varieties—an object of great and practical consequence. The initial steps in this direction have already been taken and the successful outcome of the experiments is now only a question of time. The department has promised facilities to all those engaged in serious efforts to solve the problem effectively and inexpensively.

The heading experimentation includes the Veterinary Clinic at Quito and several demonstration farms. Under the clinic, opened in February, 1929, function the nurseries for forest trees and useful and ornamental plants; in addition, model chicken houses are to be established this year. The department is doing everything possible to increase the usefulness of the clinic, which is already supplied with the necessary staff and equipment, including operating rooms, laboratories, compartments for sick animals, and a crematory. During the past year approximately 600,000 plants were distributed from its nurseries and it is hoped that the same policy in regard to reforestation will be continued.

The chicken houses, now in process of construction, will fill a double purpose: They will show amateur and professional poultrymen three standard types of chicken houses with the necessary yard attached to each one, and they will provide breeding stock of various strains of purebred fowls for distribution at prices within the reach of everyone.

The establishment of a series of agricultural centers called demonstration farms, to dispense service and information to the surrounding regions, is a project which has been especially fostered by the department. On each farm attention will be given to the most important agricultural problems in that particular area, with special consideration for the crops and activities that stand out for their adaptability, commercial value, and consequent demand in local or foreign markets. Nor will the industrial uses be neglected, for studies in that field will be undertaken. On these farms special emphasis will be given to the selection and distribution of seeds, the treatment of various plant pests and diseases, comparative studies of different systems of cultivation, experiments in the use of fertilizers, tests of plant acclimatization, determination of the most suitable crops and methods, the care and breeding of domestic animals, and, in short, everything necessary for obtaining exact data of benefit to future farm activities throughout the nation. To repeat a well-known axiom, agricultural problems must be worked out in the field.

The success of the farms, the majority of which will be comparatively small, will unquestionably depend on three main factors. The first is strategic location; sites must be as typical as possible of the agricultural conditions in the region, in order that the results obtained may be applicable throughout the area. Care must be taken to place them, if possible, in the center of important and populous agricultural communities, in the neighborhood of a town, and preferably near one or more rural schools.

Liberal expenditure in the initial outlay is the second requirement to assure good equipment, model buildings, and ample plant and animal breeding arrangements.

Both these precautions will be in vain, however, unless the directors of the farms are carefully chosen agronomists, enthusiastic, active, congenial, and capable. On the direction their energies take the future of the farms will in large part depend. Although the director is supposed to reside at the farm, he will have to entrust much responsibility to his assistants, for one of his principal duties is to serve as extension worker. In this capacity he must make frequent visits to the principal agricultural centers of the region; distribute seeds and plants; establish first experimental and then demonstration fields with the close cooperation of willing farmers; give lectures in towns and rural schools; and, finally, learn at first hand the conditions of crops and livestock in his district, so as to be able to report to the General Bureau of Agriculture. These agronomists will constitute a bond of real and effective union between rural communities and the Government.

The Department of Agriculture has established provisional demonstration farms at Pichincha, Isla de Silva, and Milagro, and is making preliminary studies and plans for similar establishments at Azuay and Manabi.

The experimental farm at Pichincha combines a systematic and practical study of the cultivation of cereal crops, potatoes, and forage plants with the breeding of livestock in general; these activities, which complement each other admirably, are closely related to the principal products of the mountain region. The main emphasis will be upon the systematic study of wheat cultivation; the breeding of pedigreed livestock, both cattle and hogs, with the special aim of distributing breeding stock to smaller Government offices of the department in the interior and to private individuals; the establishment of free breeding stables for the improvement of livestock in the vicinity; the founding of a veterinary clinic equipped to serve the important and well-developed livestock industry of the region; the study of soil erosion, the vast importance of which in the agriculture of mountainous regions has not yet been properly appreciated; and the methodical study of rendering lard and dressing meats.

At present the farm contains about 300 acres, 5 water mills, offices and residence for the director, 90 head of cattle (including some imported Holstein-Freisian and Guernsey stock, horses and mules, 2 male and 4 female pedigreed Berkshire hogs for breeding purposes), and an adequate supply of tools and equipment. A model sty and a modern stable, with a capacity of 50 cows, are being built.

Among the activities of the Isla de Silva farm, the land for which was acquired in 1928, are the careful study of the complicated and difficult cacao problem, with special reference to experiments in genetics to discover immune or resistant varieties; experiments in inexpensive rice cultivation by means of artificial irrigation; studies, in the plant quarantine field, of tropical plants imported by the department, as a necessary preliminary to their distribution to the rest of the country; the breeding of pedigreed domestic animals for distribution to the other stations and to farms of the coastal region; efforts to acclimatize and cultivate new forage plants; and the development of rice growing as a commercial proposition.

The farm at Milagro was to be established under the direction of Señor Rumeau soon after the article referred to was written. A site had been selected at a spot where all the crops in the coastal region might be grown, a fact of material advantage in studying as intensively as possible all manifestations of tropical agriculture. On this farm special attention will be paid to the installation of nurseries for propagating tropical plants, especially fruit trees, on a large scale, for distribution at cost to farmers of the district; the study of irrigation and fertilizers in sugar-cane cultivation; the establishment of an animal breeding station similar to those at Ambato, Cuenca, and Manabi; and the possibility of growing fruit, especially pineapples, on a commercial scale.

The farm at Azuay will be under the direction of Señor Cattoni, who is studying the appropriate location and organization. The principal activities there will include the growing of fruit, ornamental, and forest trees; the establishment of an animal breeding and service station; experimentation with forage plants, and perhaps apiculture and sericulture.

A large part of the Province of Manabi has been examined by Señor Márquez, the director of the proposed farm in that section, in his search for the most favorable location. While members of the staff will include in their studies the ordinary crops of that region, they will specialize in the study of textile fibers and other vegetable products useful in industry.

The forest and range substation at Tiupullo, in Cotopaxi, was established to investigate the most profitable uses for the paramos. Begun in 1929, it now boasts a fine residence and large fields for the experimental planting of conifers and forage plants. Its flocks of

sheep and llamas—including three male alpacas—are in splendid condition. At present work is being continued in the planting of trees and the increasing of flocks and herds. A project is on foot for experimenting with the use of oca (a South American tuberous wood sorrell) as a basis for hog feed.

The Normal School of Ambato comprises a school of agriculture, a large nursery of fruit trees, an experiment station with fields and laboratories, and a model stable, where a breeding service for cattle and hogs will soon be established.

The maintenance of agricultural warehouses is one of the major activities of the third division, publicity and promotion. Owing to the lack of cooperative societies, through which farmers in other countries may arrange to acquire tools and other necessary materials at nominal prices free from the added expense of middlemen's profits, it was only natural that the Government should establish two agricultural warehouses, one at Quito, the other at Guayaquil. There tools, agricultural and livestock equipment, chemical and biological products, remedies, and similar merchandise are distributed among the farmers at cost.

The National Budget provides the relatively small rotating fund of 40,000 sucres for both warehouses; this small grant not only makes this service possible, but also permits the careful selection of useful and essential articles which would be difficult, if not impossible, to purchase in the national markets. The success of the warehouses, which will eventually be patronized by an increasing number of farmers if they continue to offer indispensable articles at low prices, depends in large part upon the wisdom and care used in the original purchases. There is an immediate and increasing demand for medicines, serums, vaccines, insecticides, fungicides, pulverizers, and fertilizers, to mention only the things most generally requested. Then, too, it should not be difficult for the warehouses to secure the agencies of certain manufacturing or construction firms with real advantage to both parties.

For some time the task of imparting information has been carried on by the Normal School at Ambato and its school of practical agriculture, and by the office at Guayaquil, with its important publications. This is to be furthered by the lectures which the department proposes to encourage and which are to be given—some already have been delivered—by professional men in the towns and rural schools, and by the magazine which it publishes and which should develop into an organ of real benefit to the farmers of the nation.

*Brazilian coffee developments.*—Confronted with large accumulated stocks because of the failure of earlier valorization schemes, the Provisional Government of Brazil, which assumed power on November 3, 1930, set out to eliminate this congestion of the market by purchasing

and destroying the low-grade coffee which constituted the excess of production over consumption requirements; this would permit the free outflow of future crops and allow the market to revert to the time-honored law of supply and demand. The latest development in the present administration's coffee program, it may be explained here, was the creation last December of a National Coffee Council to take over the whole coffee problem with no further intervention of the Federal or State Government in the matter; the council was established to protect the coffee industry in the transition period from absolute artificiality to free production and trading. A 10-shilling tax has been levied on each bag of coffee exported; the proceeds are used for buying and eliminating the surplus production of low-grade coffees, the Bank of Brazil providing the credits necessary for the purchase of the old stocks still on hand. Surplus stocks are thus being eliminated and new plantings practically prohibited; the National Coffee Council, moreover, is making every effort to increase the consumption of coffee.

In the spring of this year, the council appointed a technical bureau headed by Dr. Fernando Costa, who organized the Federal Coffee Bureau. According to a statement by Doctor Costa in *The Spice Mill* for June, 1932, the new bureau will investigate and make recommendations upon every phase of coffee production from the selection of the variety for planting to the final steps in exporting. The wide scope of the bureau is clearly indicated in a summary of its aims and purposes, originally published in Brazil.

It will study all problems, practical and theoretical, dealing with the growing and marketing of coffee; carry on research and experiments in demonstration fields and special laboratories on all phases of intensive cultivation and the production of superior types; encourage all coffee-producing States to develop scientific procedures for cultivating, picking, drying, milling, preparing, and commercializing the product, from the selection of the variety to the standardization by types and quality; organize coffee museums, for educational and advertising purposes; establish in coffee zones demonstration fields and rooms for commercial and agricultural propaganda, where growers may follow the development of scientific cultivation, treatment, picking, and preparation of the product; submit all coffees to the cup test; organize practical courses for *fazenda* superintendents and for coffee graders; organize an efficient inspection service of coffee for consumption; divulge, by means of appropriate publications, the results obtained from the research of experimental stations and agricultural institutes; and establish relations with the agricultural and scientific centers within the nation and abroad.

The directors of the Technical Bureau will install and maintain in the States of Minas Geraes, Rio de Janeiro, Espirito Santo, Parana,

Bahia, and Pernambuco a special service for the improvement of coffee, in order to encourage and intensify the production of fine varieties. In Sao Paulo the bureau will continue the present coffee section in the Department of Agriculture.

The National Coffee Council, reviewing the coffee situation in its annual report, stated that on June 30, 1931, there were 18,000,000 bags of coffee retained in the Sao Paulo regulating warehouses; these, added to the 17,500,000 bags at which the 1931-32 crop was then estimated, made a total of 35,500,000 bags of coffee available in the State of Sao Paulo alone. As the average coffee exports through Santos are calculated at 9,500,000 bags a year, this left a surplus of 26,000,000 to be disposed of, without taking into consideration the coffee production of other Brazilian States. Of the 18,000,000 bags stored on June 30, 1931, nearly 13,000,000 bags had been bought and paid for by the council on April 30, leaving 5,083,462 bags which have been purchased but not yet paid for. Of the 17,500,000 bags of the 1931-32 Sao Paulo crop, 9,500,000 bags have been accounted for by export shipments to Santos or by purchases of the Coffee Council at Sao Paulo.

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## FINANCE AND COMMERCE

*Brazil abolishes internal tariff barriers.*—The Provisional Government of Brazil has launched a new attack on interstate and inter-municipal taxes. These taxes, levied by some States on products of foreign origin which have already paid a Federal import tax as well as on domestic merchandise originating in other units of the Federation, have been characterized by Dr. Getulio Vargas, head of the Provisional Government, as amounting often to an interstate tariff war and constituting one of the most serious obstacles to the economic development of Brazil. As early as 1904 laws were passed forbidding this method of taxation, but they were circumvented by many of the States who created "consumption," "transport," and other taxes, violating the spirit if not the letter of the law. Early during his administration Doctor Vargas denounced these taxes and on May 14, 1931, issued a decree by which the Brazilian States and municipalities as well as the Federal District were "forbidden to create or maintain in their respective territories any tax, fee, contribution, or privilege which in any way creates inequality between the products of said State, municipality, or Federal District and those originating in another section of the national territory or abroad, after the products are duly nationalized."<sup>1</sup> This decree became effective on January 1, 1932, but "considering that these taxes, although they have been

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<sup>1</sup> See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, August, 1931, pp. 860-861.



repeatedly forbidden by law, continue to be collected by an unjustified fiscal policy in various States of the Federation" the Provisional Government has issued a new decree (No. 21418 of May 17, 1932) which it is believed will eradicate them definitely.

The decree provides that Brazilian States and municipalities are expressly forbidden to create, for any reason and under any name or form whatever, imposts, taxes, or duties whose incidence is on interstate or intermunicipal commerce. This term is defined as including the persons engaged in this commerce as well as the goods which enter into it and the vehicles which carry them, whether land, fluvial, or maritime. Interstate and intermunicipal imposts, taxes, and duties are defined as all those placed upon the operations necessary for the interchange of domestic and foreign commodities when they are the object of commerce between one State and another or between one State and the Federal District or between municipalities, whether located in the same or different States. Thus, the decree says, States and municipalities are forbidden: (a) To tax, upon entrance to their territory, domestic and foreign goods, the vehicles which carry them and the persons engaged in their commerce, whether the said goods are intended for consumption in the State or municipality of entry, or for consumption in some other State or municipality; (b) to levy imposts, taxes, or duties on the aforementioned goods, vehicles, and persons when in transit through their territory.

The States and municipalities are allowed to tax foreign merchandise or the commodities produced in other States or municipalities only when they have already become the object of commerce within that State or municipality and have therefore been incorporated into the body of its wealth in circulation and are offered to the public for consumption and when such a tax is also equally imposed upon similar merchandise produced in the State or municipality.

Those in possession of foreign or national merchandise threatened by State or municipal laws establishing taxes in violation of this decree may request an order of maintenance against the fiscal agent who violates the law. Against such an order, to be issued within 24 hours after the presentation of the petition, stays may be admitted only on evidence of fraud; and once the order is confirmed by a judge it can not be suspended by an appeal to a higher court or by action brought by the State or municipality against the possessor of the merchandise.

The decree also provides for the eventual elimination of the export taxes now levied by the State. According to its terms, "within the period of five years subsequent to January, 1933, State export taxes shall be abolished or replaced by others, and the States shall be obliged to provide annually in their budgets a reduction of 20 per cent on the taxes in force, until they are totally abolished."

*Guatemala modifies its subsidiary currency.*—The quetzal, the monetary unit of the Republic of GUATEMALA, representing 1.504665 grams of fine gold, was adopted by a presidential decree issued on November 26, 1924, modified and approved by legislative decree No. 1379 of May 7, 1925. Since its establishment it has been practically stable, its par value in United States currency being \$1. The establishment of this currency, named after the national bird of Guatemala (emblematic of liberty, since it is said that not one has ever lived in captivity), was one of the steps taken by the Guatemalan Government during the administration of President José María Orellana to prevent a continuation of the period of paper money inflation which had existed from 1897 to 1923. The first step was the creation in 1923 of a *Caja Reguladora*, or Exchange Regulation Bureau, to maintain the stability of the exchange. When a central bank of issue was finally established on July 6, 1926, the bureau was dissolved and its assets and liabilities taken over by the bank, which assumed responsibility for the existing paper pesos (revalued at the ratio of 60 to 1 quetzal) and is gradually replacing them with its own notes issued against a gold reserve of 40 per cent.

The monetary law of 1925 provided for the minting of gold coins of 20, 10, and 5 quetzales. These gold coins are now in circulation as well as the 1-quetzal and half-quetzal silver coins also provided for by law; but many of the subsidiary coins, both silver and copper, bear no relation to the quetzal which, like the dollar, is divided into 100 cents. The coins in circulation include pesos, reales, and cuartillos, and in the Departments of Petén and Chiquimula transactions are conducted daily in pieces-of-eight and other ancient coins, whose circulation, restricted to those Departments, causes the inhabitants some difficulties. Also the 1-quetzal and half-quetzal coins, because of their bulkiness, have not proven very popular and the stock of silver currency in the vaults of the Central Bank of Guatemala is constantly increasing.

To remedy this situation the Legislative Assembly of Guatemala issued a decree, signed by the President on May 12, 1932, which modifies the provisions of the original monetary law relative to the subsidiary currency. Within one year the 1-quetzal, half-quetzal, 1-centavo, 5-peso, 1-peso, 4-real, 2-real, 1-real, half-real, and the cuartillo coins will be demonetized; the period for the demonetization of the old silver coins which still circulate in the Departments of Petén and Chiquimula is, however, six months. This currency will be exchanged by the Central Bank for the gold coins now in circulation, for its own banknotes, or for the new silver and copper-aluminum subsidiary coins, at the option of the bearer. The new subsidiary coins provided for by the decree are 25-centavo, 10-centavo, and 5-centavo silver

pieces and 2-centavo, 1-centavo, and half-centavo copper-aluminum pieces.

The total coinage of silver is limited, unless changed by law, to 2,000,000 quetzales and that of copper-aluminum coins to 500,000 quetzales. The silver and copper currency may be exchanged for gold provided not less than 20 quetzales in silver or 5 quetzales in copper are presented for conversion at one time; it is legal tender, in payment of private debts, in sums not exceeding 10 and 1 quetzales, respectively. The Government, however, will accept the silver and copper coins in any amount in payment of all obligations.

*Brazilian Coffee Developments.*—See p. 586.

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## EDUCATION

*New schools and courses.*—While new schools are constantly being created and new courses added to the curricula of already established educational institutions throughout Latin America, there are perhaps but few that ever receive more than passing notice beyond the confines of their own country. To the thoughtful student of education in the Americas, however, even this meager information reveals certain well-defined tendencies which indicate constant cultural progress. Among recent trends are to be found such absorbing movements as the extension of educational advantages to an ever-increasing number of people through night schools; the raising of trade and agricultural schools to a position of greater importance; the cultivation of a spirit of international friendship by the promotion of cultural exchange and by the naming of schools for sister American Republics, with the fitting recognition of the national holidays of one country by the pupils in the namesake schools of the other; the adoption of modern pedagogical methods wherever possible; and the initiation of extensive programs for the establishment of schools in more isolated sections for the indigenous population. The scope of subjects taught in the schools has also been greatly widened and there has been a noticeable increase in the number of special courses and schools established. A short review of the special courses and institutions opened in various Latin American countries during the past few months may be of interest.

In BRAZIL a museum course and a university extension course in music were recently organized. The creation of the museum course, which is being given in the Historical Museum, was authorized by a Government decree issued on March 7, 1932. Classes were to begin on March 15, the regular academic year extending from that date to November 30. The course covers two years and according to the

provisions of the decree every subject shall have at least one class period of an hour each week. Enrollment in the school is open for all those who have passed the fifth-year examinations in the Pedro II Secondary School or in any similar institution under Government supervision. Candidates with certificates that they have completed required studies in Portuguese, French, English, Latin, arithmetic, geography, general history, and Brazilian geography and history, and employees of museums in other cities of the Republic may also enroll. Students who have successfully completed the museum course will be given preference in appointments or promotion to specified positions in the National Historical Museum. The program of study arranged for the course included the political and administrative history of Brazil during the colonial period, numismatics, the history of art, the history of Brazilian art, applied archaeology in Brazil, Brazilian numismatics, epigraphy, chronology, and museum science. The National Museum will have charge of the course and the teaching staff will be appointed from among the employees of that institution.

In this connection it is interesting to note that Miss Berta Lutz, who for some time has been secretary of the National Museum, came to the United States in April for three months of intensive study of museum management and methods. Miss Lutz, who held a fellowship from the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, carried on her investigations under the auspices of the American Association of Museums. On her trip through the central and eastern sections of the United States, Miss Lutz visited more than 50 institutions, including trail-side and other open-air museums, in which she is particularly interested.

The popular course in music opened by the University of Rio de Janeiro on April 20, 1932, is the first of its kind to be established in Brazil. The program as outlined in the press covers practically every phase of the history of music besides presenting a detailed study of Brazilian musical folklore. The various subjects scheduled for treatment during the course include the origin of music, the music of the ancients, Greek and oriental music, primitive Christian music, the Gregorian chant, popular medieval music, the beginning of polyphony, musical notation, counterpoint; the opera, oratorio, and other musical forms of the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries; German musical drama of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries; songs, and symphonic and chamber music of Germany, Austria, France, the Scandinavian countries, Bohemia, and Russia during the same period; contemporary music in different countries; and Brazilian music during colonial times, the empire, the era of Carlos Gomes, the latter part of the nineteenth century, and the beginning of the present century. (Those who have listened in person or by radio to the concerts of Latin American music given at the Pan

American Union will remember Carlos Gomes as the gifted composer of numbers often repeated by request. The two most popular selections from his many compositions that have figured on the programs are the overture to *Il Guarani* and the grand scenes from *Salvador Rosa*.) The principles of musical æsthetics, the musical folklore of Brazil, and the general characteristics and tendencies in modern music likewise form part of the studies. Classes are held once a week, and the tuition is free.

The scope of courses offered by the School of Medicine of the University of CHILE was broadened during the latter part of April by the creation of a course in the history of medicine. The first session was held on April 25, 1932; at that time brief remarks were made by the dean of the School of Medicine, who stressed the importance of the new subject, and an introductory lecture was given by the professor in charge.

Early in the year President Olaya Herrera of COLOMBIA issued an Executive decree providing for the creation of a teachers' college to offer a graduate course for normal school teachers. One of the principal objects of the decree was to prepare for changes to be inaugurated in the educational system of the country during 1933. In view of the establishment of the new institution, no other normal schools will be opened for the present. Subsequent orders issued by the Minister of Education provided that the college would open on March 15, 1932, and to be eligible for the 1-year course, students must be between 20 and 35 years old. The teachers attending the school were chosen by the Departmental supervisors of public education, three being sent from each Department. They were to be selected on the basis of their ability and qualifications for assuming later the responsibilities either of teaching or directing normal schools or of general supervising. Students receive free tuition, traveling expenses, room and board, and a monthly stipend while attending the school.

In order to provide adequate preparation for science teachers in secondary and normal schools in COSTA RICA, President González Víquez, near the close of his term of office, issued a decree creating a School of Sciences, where instruction will be offered in mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, geography, mineralogy, and geology. Each course will cover two years. Enrollment in the school is open to normal-school graduates and persons having a high school diploma from some national institution or an equivalent education in a foreign country.

IN MEXICO interesting innovations in the regular educational programs were the opening of a correspondence course in hygiene for rural teachers and the adoption of new methods of music instruction. The correspondence course in hygiene and the care of the sick especially adapted for rural teachers was opened by the educational division of the Bureau of Public Health on May 18, 1932. By establishing this course, the bureau will prepare the teacher to instruct not only the school children but the adult members of the community as well. The lessons will be arranged in simple and interesting form and be essentially practical.

In order to coordinate the instruction of music and provide for a larger number of pupils the advantages of musical instruction under the best teachers, the Department of Public Education has decided to broadcast a course in music from its station in Mexico City. Since it is intended that the rural school in particular should benefit from the plan, the department is endeavoring to equip all the rural schools with receiving sets. Broadcasts are to be made daily.

Recently the Fine Arts Council of the Ministry of Public Education approved the adoption of a new program of musical instruction in the primary schools. As the students progress, they will be given an opportunity to learn the regional music of the country and to become familiar with the tunes and rhythms of the ancient indigenous tribes. This not only will serve to broaden the pupils' knowledge and heighten their enjoyment and appreciation of local themes, but will be an important factor in preserving some of the now fast disappearing music of the native peoples.

*Centenary of girls' school.*—On May 30, 1932, the Merced School for Girls in Bogota, which has the distinction of being the first educational institution for women established in COLOMBIA after it became independent, celebrated its centenary.

Occupying a spacious, well-equipped building in the center of Bogota, the present school has little outward resemblance to the institution which began life in an abandoned Capuchin Convent a century ago; yet neither the changes in its curriculum nor the improvement of its quarters can alter the pride of students and alumni in its early history and particularly in its establishment, one of the cherished projects of the Liberator.

The old Colegio de la Enseñanza, which dated from colonial times, had proved unequal to meeting the educational needs of the early nineteenth century. With far-sighted vision Don Rufino Cuervo, then Governor of Bogota and the preeminent philologist of his day, succeeded in securing a modest annual income sufficient to establish a school which should provide an adequate education for women. At that time it was the intention that the new institution should

extend its benefits solely to the daughters of veterans of the War for Independence.

It was Vice President Márquez, then acting president in the absence of General Santander, who had the honor of issuing the decree authorizing the establishment of the school. To him also are attributed the first regulations, grants of funds sufficient for its maintenance, and the appointment of Doña Marcelina Lagos as its first principal.

Strangely enough, while the school was not established until 1832, over a year after the death of the Liberator and under entirely different circumstances, both its founding and establishment in the Capuchin convent were in accordance with a decree which he had issued more than 10 years before. Bolívar, then as always keenly interested in the education of women, wished to establish a school where impoverished daughters of men killed or wounded during the War of Independence might receive an education. The decree provided that the convent should be used for such an institution, and authorized that a legacy of 25,000 pesos be used for that purpose exclusively. Although the provisions of the decree were never carried out, in 1832, when the problem of women's education was again discussed, the building selected by the Liberator was that chosen for the new school.

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## LABOR

*Brazilian regulations on work of women in industry.*—Detailed regulations on the work of women in BRAZILIAN industrial and commercial establishments were issued by Getulio Vargas, Chief of the Provisional Government, in a decree dated May 17, 1932.

Beginning with a declaration of the right of all workers to equal compensation without distinction as to sex, the decree provides that women shall not be employed in public or privately owned industrial and commercial establishments between the hours of ten at night and five in the morning, forbids their employment in specified industries, and guarantees them safeguards during pregnancy and childbirth.

According to the regulations, women shall not be required to handle articles above a given weight nor be employed in work carried on underground, in subterranean mining operations, quarries, private or public construction work, or in dangerous or unhealthful tasks listed in a supplementary order. Restriction on any or all of these last, however, may be lifted by order of the Minister of Labor, Industry, and Commerce when it is proved that as a result of the adoption of new methods of work or manufacture or the introduction of preventive measures the danger or unhealthful condition has been eliminated.

While the regulations provide that women shall not be employed in night work, exception is made in cases where the members of the family owning the establishment are the only persons employed, or where night work is indispensable to avoid an interruption in the normal operation of the establishment in case of unavoidable circumstances which do not recur periodically or to avoid the loss of raw materials or perishable substances. Women employed on the staffs of hospitals, clinics, sanatoriums, and insane asylums and directly responsible for the care of the sick, those over 18 years of age working in telephone or radio companies, and those who occupy responsible administrative positions and do not participate in the normal continuous work of the establishment are also excepted.

Pregnancy alone shall not be considered a justifiable cause for the dismissal of a woman from her position. Expectant mothers shall not be required to work during the four weeks prior to and following childbirth. Upon recommendation by a physician these periods may each be increased to six weeks should conditions so demand. Women nursing their own children will be granted special rest periods of a half hour each twice a day during the first six months following childbirth.

Establishments which employ 30 or more women over 16 years of age shall maintain a day nursery for the children of their employees.

During the period of from four to six weeks prior to or following childbirth women shall have the right to compensation equal to one-half of their average wages during the previous six months, and shall not be demoted because of their absence from their regular duties.

The amount of the compensation during the time it is impossible for her to work will ordinarily be taken from the funds established by the Institute of Social Insurance. If, however, money is not available from this source, the amount must be paid by the employer.

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## THE ARGENTINE RED CROSS AND ITS WORK

An excellent summary of the history of the Red Cross in Argentina, which in 1930 completed 50 years of work, was made by the *Revista y Boletín de Información de la Liga de Sociedades de la Cruz Roja*, Paris, in its June, 1932, issue, and from it the following review has been taken.

On June 10, 1880, the National Red Cross Society of Argentina was definitely organized, largely owing to the zeal of Dr. Guillermo Rawson, and four days later its constitution was approved by the Government, which the year before had signed the International Red Cross Convention of Geneva.



In 1886 the society had its first opportunity to prove its worth during the cholera epidemic in the Republic.

At the beginning of its second decade, the Argentine Red Cross was in a flourishing condition. Housed in a spacious building, it had a large stock of first-aid material, drugs, and surgical dressings, and could show bank deposits of over 40,000 pesos. At the time of the floods at Cordoba and Rio Negro and the earthquake at La Rioja the society did much praiseworthy work; as a result, disaster relief was accepted as one of its primary activities. The flood relief work at Cordoba was directly responsible for establishing there a provincial committee, which was the basis for the formation later of a local organization. It was at Cordoba, too, that women first participated in the direction of the society.

During this period the Red Cross cooperated in founding a society to aid the indigenous peoples of the Republic, which society started schools, instructed the indigenes in agriculture and other industries, cared for orphaned minors, and urged the distribution of public lands.

Plans were made for a closer cooperation with the surgeon general's office and participation in the annual maneuvers of the army, and in 1887 an agreement was signed defining the services which the society should lend the Government in time of war. The Red Cross participated with much success in the Chicago World's Fair of 1893 and the National Exposition of 1898.

A proof of the spirit of international cooperation animating the Argentine Red Cross was the work done by the society in connection with the terrible earthquake which shook the city of Valparaiso, Chile, on April 30, 1909. Six large shipments of food, clothing, medicine, tents, furniture, and other articles representing a total value of 50,000 pesos were sent to the victims of the disaster.

During the World War the Argentine Red Cross assisted the International Committee of the Red Cross in Geneva by raising funds and maintaining of an information service. When the League of Red Cross Societies was organized in 1919, the Argentine society was one of the first to join.

The following year the women's committee, under the chairmanship of Sra. doña Guillermina Oliveira César de Wilde, was authorized to open nurses' training schools, the first of which was duly founded on June 18, 1920.

An important event in the last decade was the meeting, held in 1923 at Buenos Aires under the auspices of the League of Red Cross Societies, of the First Pan American Red Cross Conference. A Hygiene Exposition, in which the Argentine Red Cross entered a fine exhibit, was arranged as part of the conference.

One result of the conference was the opening of a membership campaign in the following years; another was the amending of the

Constitution to provide for a more centralized organization and Government representation on its executive committee.

The relief work in which the Argentine Red Cross has had a part has not been limited merely to the homeland. At the request of the Nansen Commission in 1921, it sent to Russian famine victims a shipment of more than 10,000 articles of food and clothing and a donation of 200,000 pesos. In 1922 it hastened to the relief of earthquake sufferers in Chile with supplies and a donation of 5,000 pesos, and in 1926, when Villa Encarnación in Paraguay was destroyed by a cyclone, it again responded with relief.

Among the activities of the Red Cross in the field of hygiene during recent years may be pointed out the campaigns against venereal diseases and trachoma, and the foundation of the Juan Gironde dispensary. The first has done much excellent work among the working class through its dispensary and other means. The campaign against trachoma is largely localized in Santiago del Estero, where it was begun in 1928. While the Juan Gironde Dispensary, opened the same year in Buenos Aires, is engaged principally in the diagnosis of cancer, the dispensary also maintains gynecological services and a dental laboratory.

Another necessary and extremely important feature of the activities of the Argentine Red Cross has been its educational work. The society has published the *Revista de la Cruz Roja Argentina* regularly since May 25, 1923, and each year since 1927 it has distributed an almanac. It is in its schools of nursing, however, that the most effective work along these lines is done.

There are at present nurses' training schools for men and for women, schools for the practical nurses known in Argentina as *Samaritanas*, and a school for social workers. The training school for women nurses in Buenos Aires has graduated 430 since it began to function in 1920. The original plan of study in this school, as in those in Santiago del Estero, San Juan, and Corrientes and the school for men in Buenos Aires, was modified with very satisfactory results to allow a greater amount of practice work in the hospitals. The Training School for Men Nurses was established a year later. In 1925 a course for practical nurses was created. One hundred trained nurses and 50 practical nurses have graduated from the school.

The first school for women practical nurses was opened in Buenos Aires in 1928 and in the following year similar schools were opened in San Juan and Santiago del Estero; their graduates have filled a great need. The School for Social Workers was established in the capital in 1928 to train students for work in connection with families, schools, and factories. Diplomas granted by this school are recognized by the National Bureau of Hygiene, and the School Board of the Province of Buenos Aires.

An excellent glimpse of the variety of activities in which the Red Cross is engaged both in Buenos Aires and the Provinces, either directly or through its various local committees, is to be obtained from the biennial report for 1930-31 presented to the board of directors on May 28, 1932.

According to this report, the society has been endeavoring to broaden the scope of studies in the schools for practical nurses. Experience had demonstrated that the three months' course given theretofore was insufficient to meet the needs for which the schools had been founded and it was decided not only to extend the course of study to a year, but also to change it to correspond to the first year course given in the regular nurses' training schools. Graduates are now called *Samaritanas* instead of practical nurses. Upon the successful completion of the course it is now possible for students to continue their education and become trained nurses without duplicating any studies.

Hundreds of young women, many socially prominent, now enroll in these schools each year and while they may not take up nursing as a profession, they form an important group whose preparation is not only of incalculable value in the home, but also a bond of interest between the Red Cross and large numbers who might never otherwise be interested in its work. Furthermore it places a trained group at the disposal of the society whenever need may arise.

The *Samaritanas* who attend the Central School have formed a committee which devotes itself entirely to practical social work and in this way they render an important service to the society even before completing their studies.

A nurses' mutual aid society has been organized by the students at the Training School for Men Nurses, and the Red Cross Nurses' Home has secured more positions for those registered there than any other similar institution in the capital. Requests for nurses are reported to be sent the Red Cross even from the interior of the country. Recently when the regional hospital at Concepcion del Uruguay was inaugurated 16 Red Cross nurses from Buenos Aires were employed. In certain cases where it is impossible for persons in isolated sections of the country to receive adequate medical care the Red Cross provides for their hospitalization in Buenos Aires.

The frequency of accidents at the beaches near the capital has recently caused the executive committee to arrange for a corps of lifeguards to patrol the most frequented bathing resorts. According to the project, all service will be voluntary. The corps will be formed of young men who not only are good swimmers but must undergo special training and pass a special examination before they may serve in this capacity.

First-aid stations have already been established at the Nuñez, Los Angeles, Olivos, Las Toscas, San Isidro, and San Fernando beaches. These stations, which are in charge of graduate men and women nurses, are open on Sundays and holidays. Coordinated ambulance service gives assurance that serious cases may be removed to a hospital as speedily as possible.

Much important work has also been done by the Red Cross through its regular ambulance service in the capital. Although the charge for this service has been small because the society does not wish to operate purely on a business basis, receipts were sufficient to justify the purchase of four new ambulances in 1930-31. It is expected that similar services will soon be established by the Red Cross in other cities of the Republic.

The Red Cross pharmacy in Buenos Aires has continued to render a valuable service by supplying medicines for the first-aid stations. A special feature is the preparation of first-aid kits for use in automobile travel. Although small, the kit contains everything needed for first aid in case of accidents; it has been priced at 30 pesos and thus far enjoyed a wide sale. The renewal of medicines in the first-aid chests of factories, shops, motion-picture theaters and business houses is made regularly twice a month.

Notwithstanding the slow growth of the Junior Red Cross, its work is steadily advancing and in several schools has been noteworthy. One of the outstanding activities of the organization has been the exchange of correspondence and albums with schools in other countries. During the past two years children in schools in 10 different countries received letters from the children of Argentina through the medium of the Junior Red Cross. One of the interesting projects which was recently finished was the donation of funds for reconstruction of the school building in Villa Encarnacion, Paraguay, destroyed by cyclone several years ago.

Three courses in nursing for nuns were organized during the 2-year period, one in the Open Door Hospital, a second in the Santa Rosa School, and the third in the Institute of Household Economics of the St. Vincent de Paul Society. In Barracas the recently organized chapter has established a school for *Samaritanas*, and training schools for nurses have been opened in the Israelite Hospital and at the sanatorium at Ascochinga. The Central School of Nursing for Men, which is a night school, has now been made coeducational, to provide women who can not attend day classes an opportunity to learn the profession.

During the years 1930-31 several new chapters were formed in different parts of the Republic.

According to the report of the Santiago del Estero chapter, the School of Nursing maintained by the committee has functioned regularly during the past two years. Courses were held for both trained nurses and *Samaritanas*. In view of the importance of the campaign against trachoma, a special course is now given in the school on diseases of the eye. During 1930, 595 children were treated in the Children's Clinic. The following year the number of patients increased to 794. In the Eye Clinic, 900 persons were treated for the first time during 1930; 3,127 examinations were made and 2,046 treatments given. Glasses were prescribed for 121 persons and 23 operations performed. In 1931, 1,073 persons visited the clinic for the first time. Examinations numbered 3,954; treatments, 1,581; prescriptions for glasses, 268; and operations, 32. The Ear, Nose, and Throat Clinic, which was founded in October, 1930, reported having treated 80 pupils from the schools during 1930 and 224 the following year.

The campaign undertaken against trachoma by the Red Cross in Santiago del Estero was the first in Argentina. It was started in 1928 among the school children. Well-equipped dispensaries were installed in the principal schools of the city and in the suburbs a visiting nurse service was established. Children suffering from the disease are treated three times a week in their own school by specialists.

The Corrientes Chapter maintains a school of nursing, and during 1930-31 provided medicine and nurses to certain schools in the city.

The Mendoza Chapter has opened a course for *Samaritanas*, the first of its kind in the Province. Other features on its program were a series of lectures given in the schools and recreation centers on the treatment of diphtheria, typhoid, and eruptive fevers, the assistance of the *Samaritanas* in the vaccination of school children, and the inauguration of a course for trained nurses which was opened during the latter part of 1931.

The Women's Chapter in Saavedra, whose principal activities center around the school of nursing, the Molina y Vedia Clinic, the public library opened in November, 1929, and the distribution of clothing, reported that 156 needy homes had been aided during the 2-year period as a result of its work. In extreme cases the chapter arranged for children to be placed in institutions where they would receive proper care. The work of providing mothers with clothing for their children was continued as usual. A total of 750 readers were reported to have used the Carmen María Casotto de Cantoni Free Library during the period.

## NECROLOGY

The spring of 1932 witnessed the passing of many outstanding figures in Latin American affairs, men who had held positions of trust and responsibility in their respective countries, and to whom, in many cases, the nation had turned in times of crisis.

The Republic of HONDURAS lost one of its most prominent citizens by the demise on March 12 of Dr. Antonio R. Reina. At the time of his death, Doctor Reina represented the Department of Tegucigalpa as Deputy in the National Congress. During his long lifetime, Doctor Reina had held high positions in the courts and in Congress, having served as President of both the Supreme Court and the National Congress.

A former representative of CUBA on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Señor Rafael Sánchez Aballi, died suddenly at his home in a suburb of Habana on April 4, 1932. Señor Sánchez Aballi, who had received part of his education in the United States, held engineering degrees both from Lehigh University and the University of Habana. His education completed, he applied his professional knowledge in the sugar industry and in stock raising, to the great national benefit of both. During 1926, Señor Sánchez Aballi represented his nation in Washington as ambassador and as member of the Governing Board; before the year was out, however, a serious accident obliged him to resign. For several years thereafter he was Secretary of Communications in the Cuban Cabinet, and it was largely owing to his initiative that air mail service was established between Cuba, the United States, and Central and South America, and domestic passenger and mail service inaugurated. At the time of his death he had retired to private life and resumed his connections with the sugar industry.

The death of Gen. José F. Uriburu, late Provisional President of ARGENTINA, occurred in Paris on April 29 and was deeply felt throughout his native country. Born at Salta on July 20, 1868, he entered the Military College at the age of 17 and received his commission on December 26, 1888. That day marked the beginning of one of the most brilliant careers in the Argentine Army, for the young officer was destined to reach the highest posts in his chosen profession. He served as member of the Argentine-Chilean boundary commission and as military attaché at Madrid, London, and Berlin; shortly before his retirement in 1929, he held the post of Inspector General of the

Army. General Uriburu emerged from his brief period of retirement to pilot the ship of state during a critical period in Argentine history, the trying days between September, 1930, and the return to constitutional government in February, 1932—this was the only nonmilitary position he held during his career. Immediately after the inauguration of President Justo, General Uriburu went abroad for medical attention, but it was too late. He was buried with honors in Buenos Aires on May 27.

On May 18, Señor Juan Bautista Gaona, a former President of PARAGUAY and an upholder of the finest national traditions, died at ASUNCION at the age of 87. During his long and active life, Señor Gaona played a prominent part in both the financial and the public life of his nation. For over 25 years he was president of the Mercantile Bank of Paraguay, and a director of the National Bank and other important banking and commercial corporations.

As a statesman, Señor Gaona's first post was also his highest, that of President of the nation, which he held in 1905. Later he entered the Senate, where he served, with the exception of a single year when he was Vice President, for 10 years. Señor Gaona had identified himself with the Liberal Party, of which he was the head for a long time.

Gen. Serzedello Correa, who for many years occupied a distinguished position in the military and political life of BRAZIL, died in Rio de Janeiro on June 6, 1932. Born in the State of Para, in northern Brazil, he came to Rio de Janeiro at an early age. There he entered the Military School, graduating with honors. When the monarchy was overthrown in 1889 the young officer (he was then a captain in the army) was elected to represent his native State at the Constitutional Convention of 1891, where he took an active part in the brilliant assembly which organized the new republican régime. In 1892, already a lieutenant colonel, he was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs and later held the portfolios of Agriculture, Finance, and Justice. To his services as a member of various cabinets must be added his many years as a parliamentarian, General Serzedello having been elected on various occasions to the Chamber of Deputies by his own State and by Matto Grosso.

# SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

REPORTS RECEIVED TO JULY 11, 1932

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA	1932	
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Argentina from May 3 to May 16, 1932. (Postponement of the Seventh Pan American Conference.)	May 20	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Argentina from May 17 to May 30, 1932. (April foreign trade figures. Telephone communication between England and the Chaco. Increase in Panagra service. Transandine railway.)	June 3	Do.
BRAZIL		
Executive decree pertaining to taxation.....	May 21	Embassy, Rio de Janeiro.
COLOMBIA		
Statistics for Bogota, 1931.....	Apr. 23	Legation, Bogota.
Highway construction, Department of Nariño.....	June 22	H. D. Myers, vice consul at Buenaventura.
CUBA		
Campaign for reduction of United States sugar tariff.....	June 6	Embassy, Habana.
ECUADOR		
Ecuadorian consular district and jurisdiction in the United States.	May 10	Legation, Quito.
PANAMA		
Chiriqui Province, Panama.....	May 28	Herbert O. Williams, consul at Panama City.
PARAGUAY		
Brazil willing to grant free ports on the Atlantic to Paraguay and Bolivia if railway connection is opened up.	May 23	Legation, Asuncion.
VENEZUELA		
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Venezuela for May, 1932. (Government finances and general economic situation in Venezuela.)	June 6	Legation, Caracas.





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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



SACRISTY DOOR, CHURCH OF SANTIAGO  
POMATA, PERU

SEPTEMBER

1932

MEXICO:ONDURAS:HAI:GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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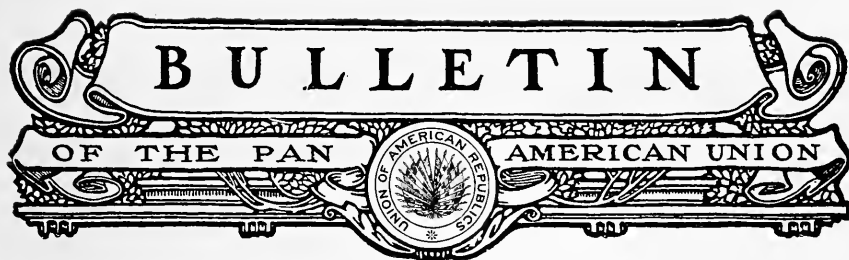
*(The contents of previous issues of the BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION can be found in the READERS' GUIDE in your library)*



Photograph by Harris & Ewing

HIS EXCELLENCY DR. EUSEBIO AYALA, PRESIDENT OF PARAGUAY

Inaugurate<sup>d</sup> August 15, 1932, for a 4-year term.



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VOL. LXVI

SEPTEMBER, 1932

No. 9

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## DR. EUSEBIO AYALA, PRESIDENT OF PARAGUAY

ON August 15, 1932, Dr. Eusebio Ayala was inaugurated President of Paraguay for the 4-year term ending in 1936. It is the second time that he has been Chief Executive of his Nation, for in 1921 he was called from retirement to take office as Provisional President for two years during a period of political readjustments.

Doctor Ayala was born in Barrera Grande, Paraguay, on August 14, 1875, and educated in Asuncion, where in 1900 he received the degree of doctor of laws and social science. During the years immediately following he taught, practiced law, and gained business experience in journalism and banking, an early training which gave him a varied and well rounded preparation for his later achievements. He entered politics as a member of the National Chamber of Deputies, of which he was chosen president in 1910. Later he represented the Capital on three separate occasions in the Senate, being a senator when elected to the high office he now holds. He has also been a cabinet minister, holding the portfolios of the Treasury, Public Instruction, and Foreign Relations, respectively, under different administrations.

Among the offices of international character which Doctor Ayala has held are: Vice president of the Inter-American High Commission (Paraguayan Section); member of the American Institute of International Law and of the International Commission of Jurists; delegate to the Hague Conferences on Bills of Exchange (1910 and 1912), to the Second and Third Pan American Scientific Congresses (1915-16 and 1925), and to the Pan American Financial Congresses of 1916 and 1920; and Minister to the United States in 1925.

# THE PRESIDENT ELECT OF PANAMA, DR. HARMODIO ARIAS, AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

During his recent visit to Washington, the President elect of Panama and former Minister to the United States called at the Pan American Union, July 22. Doctor Arias was elected in June, 1932, to succeed Ricardo J. Alfaro as President of Panama on October 1 of this year. In the group, from left to right, appear Señor Don Octavio A. Vialarino, President of the Association of Commerce of Panama; Doctor A. A. S. the Minister of Public Works; Señor Don Ricardo M. Sosa, private secretary of the President elect; and Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union.



## A MEXICAN TRIBUTE TO DWIGHT WHITNEY MORROW

THE late Dwight W. Morrow, former Ambassador of the United States to Mexico, won a world-wide reputation as a lawyer, a financier, a statesman, and a diplomat. It was in the latter capacity that he went to Mexico, where his preeminent quality of friendliness endeared him to all with whom he came in contact. Of the increased understanding between the two nations which came about during his ambassadorship, it is superfluous to speak.

A group of Mr. Morrow's Mexican friends, appreciating how great a factor his personal attitude had been in bringing about the present spirit of cooperation and mutual esteem, and desirous that future generations should not be unmindful of their debt to him, offered to the United States Embassy in Mexico City a bronze tablet which would stand as a perpetual tribute to his memory.

The tablet, which has been affixed to the chancery wall facing the embassy, was designed by the Mexican architect Carlos Contreras and skillfully cast by the sculptor Luis Albarrán. Below a likeness of Mr. Morrow in bas-relief is the following inscription:

### DWIGHT WHITNEY MORROW

EMBAJADOR DE LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS DE AMÉRICA EN MÉXICO  
DE OCTUBRE DE 1927 A SEPTIEMBRE DE 1929

CUMPLIÓ NOBLEMENTE SU MISIÓN  
AMÓ Y COMPRENDIÓ A MÉXICO

SE GANÓ EL AFECTO DE LOS MEXICANOS  
HOMENAJE DE SUS AMIGOS DE MÉXICO 1932

The dedication took place on July 4, 1932, in the embassy gardens, in a simple ceremony held during the Independence Day reception of Ambassador J. Reuben Clark, jr. At the ceremony a telegram from Mrs. Morrow, a letter from President Ortiz Rubio, and a message from General Calles were read. Señor Javier Sánchez Mejorada, representing the President, pulled the cord that withdrew the flags of the two nations and presented the tablet in an eloquent speech, in which he said:

In a world torn by discord, in an epoch so agitated and full of unexpected events as ours has been . . . the long-suffering nations are slowly awakening to the conviction that it is impossible to settle disputes definitely through intimidation or violence, that it is useless . . . to withdraw within their own boundaries from the sufferings of the rest of an impoverished and ailing humanity. . . .

Against war, in all its forms, . . . there is a powerful current of thought eager to organize the world for peace, desirous of replacing by the fertile and admirable power of persuasion and the forces dependent on common sense and

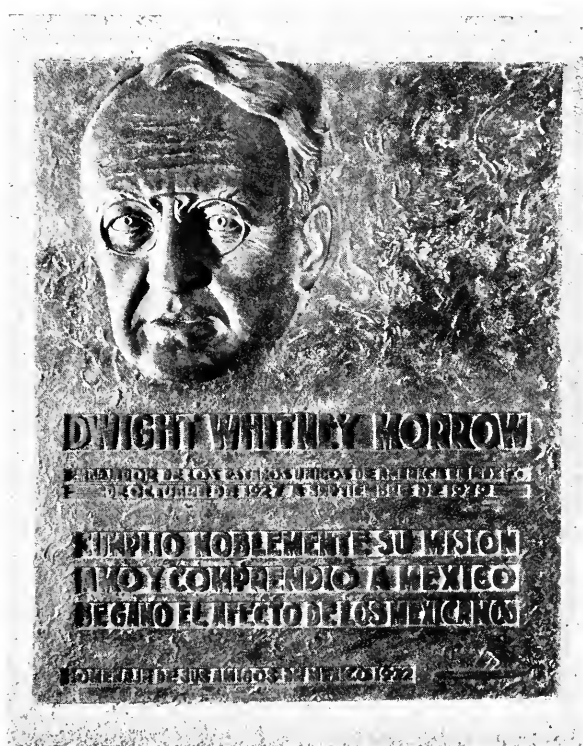
good will, the brutality of physical destruction and the moral deformation necessary to tolerate the individual and collective crimes inevitable in warfare. . . .

The names of eminent sons of your country, Mr. Ambassador, are associated with that longing of civilized peoples. Fame has borne their names to every quarter of the globe, and they are admired and respected by everyone who respects his fellow men, their rights, and their liberty. But among them all, no one is dearer to us than your illustrious predecessor—Dwight Whitney Morrow.

He it was who, with President Calles, gave new life and vigor to the chilled friendship between our two nations; who, eager to know and like Mexico, made us know and like your country better. His culture, his genuine interest in our customs, and his unfailing friendliness attracted sympathy and regard wherever he

**MEMORIAL TABLET  
TO DWIGHT WHITNEY MORROW**

As a tribute to the late Ambassador Morrow from his friends in Mexico, this bronze tablet on the outside wall of the chancery of the United States Embassy in Mexico City was unveiled July 4, 1932. The English translation of the inscription is as follows: "Dwight Whitney Morrow, Ambassador of the United States of America in Mexico, October, 1927, to September, 1929. He nobly fulfilled his mission, loved and understood Mexico, and won the affection of the Mexican people. In tribute from his Mexican friends, 1932."



Courtesy of J. Reuben Clark, Jr., United States Ambassador in Mexico

went. He honored his country and served mankind at the same time. His name, which history has already made her own, will always recall the new diplomacy which, in the case of Mexico and the United States, was a discovery of major importance.

A group of us who had the privilege of knowing him and associating with him in Mexico and who therefore appreciate how enthusiastically and wholeheartedly he worked to make his mission one of rapprochement, common sense, and conciliation, have wished to have his name engraved in bronze, so that in a material more enduring than our perishable flesh may be read how surely our friend won our hearts. We hope to make his memory the symbol of a frank and loyal friendship between his country and our own. . . .

Mr. Ambassador, there is no one who could more fittingly receive the affectionate tribute which this tablet represents than you, who were the valued coun-



selor, dear friend, and able and earnest collaborator of Ambassador Morrow in the labors which endear his memory to us and who are continuing his work so skilfully and nobly. . . . We present it with the hope that between us there may be an everlasting friendship of the kind so beautifully described by your own Thoreau:

*It is the State that produces the commerce of the just with the just, of the magnanimous with the magnanimous, of the sincere with the sincere, of man with man.*

In replying to the presentation speech, Ambassador Clark said:

By the express authorization of my Government, I have the honor of accepting this tablet which you and your associates have placed here in commemoration of the great work Ambassador Morrow did in Mexico and as a testimonial of the esteem and affection in which his memory is held in this country and among this people, which he loved so much. . . .

For your eloquent words in appreciation of Ambassador Morrow and his work, I extend to you the sincere thanks of my Government. I convey to you also the gratitude of Ambassador Morrow's family and of his friends.

For the generous, and more than just, words with which you speak of myself, I am deeply grateful. It was not only a privilege but a distinction to be associated, in however a humble a capacity, with Ambassador Morrow in his work in Mexico.

Dwight Whitney Morrow will live as lawyer, financier, diplomat, and statesman. The world so knew him, and will so know him. The world will so honor him. What he did for his clients, his associates, and his country in domestic and international affairs, will not be forgotten. In remembering him for his greatness in these, men will do mere justice. This will be history.

To-day we are remembering Ambassador Morrow's humanities, the humanities which God bestows upon his choice spirits, those humanities which history too often forgets or ignores; we are to-day remembering Ambassador Morrow's great love for mankind, his broad sympathies, his all-embracing charity, his deep and appreciative understanding.

By those qualities—not by those which history is likely to record—Ambassador Morrow changed the course of two great streams of people, which, running turbulently forward to threatening collision when he came, now, by his work, flow peacefully side by side toward ever increasing friendliness, mutual growth, and development, for a common welfare and cultural achievement.

To few men does God offer an opportunity for human service; to fewer men does He vouchsafe the wisdom to seize the opportunity when it comes.

Out of his genuine tolerance, his deep desire and ability to comprehend the other man's point of view, his conviction that not in every instance did the cause he represented command for its support all truth and all justice, came Ambassador Morrow's recognition of the rights of others, a disposition to acknowledge such rights, and a willingness to make yield thereto his own less strongly founded claims.

Ambassador Morrow did love Mexico; he had a profound admiration for the sterling qualities of her people; he had a deep sympathy for their past trials; he joined in their aspirations for a fuller and constantly increasing richness of life. . . .

I join you in the confident hope that the spirit of truth, justice, and right which led him shall always be and abide in these premises; that this spirit may be felt by all who sojourn herein; that his successors, to the last, may be guided by the same lofty principles that urged him on—all to the end that peace, good will, and fellowship, mutual understanding, and common welfare, may inspire onward our two great nations to that high destiny which a wise Providence has decreed for us.

# THE PAST AND PRESENT OF OCEAN SHIPPING IN THE AMERICAS

By C. KEECH LUDEWIG,

*Assistant Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union*

IT is a far cry from the picturesque galleons of the days of the Spanish Empire in the New World to the magnificent swift ships of the twentieth century now employed in inter-American commerce. Not only have the vessels changed in size and speed, but the fundamental idea of international commerce has changed, not only in the Western Hemisphere, but throughout the world, since the romantic days of Spain's colonial glory. The powerful rulers of Spain, in accordance with the prevailing economic theory, had but one thought, to extract from their new-found possessions as much gold, silver, other valuable metals, and precious stones as could be done with profit, deliver them to the mother country, and send as small an amount of goods in return as was possible. To-day the policy of extreme mercantilism has been radically changed to one of cooperation for common benefit. And though precious metals form part of the exports of many of the American Republics, they are unimportant when compared with coffee, the "green gold" of Brazil, with the exports of agricultural and animal products from Argentina, and with the foreign trade of Chile in nitrate, copper, and other minerals.

With over 120,000,000 people in the Latin American Republics—the majority of which are essentially agricultural in character, so that between them practically every known agricultural product may be cultivated—and with the industries of the United States and Canada and the manufactures of Europe practically equidistant from these countries, it is not surprising that while only 104 ships sailed to and from the Indies in 1529, 9,939 ships in maritime trade entered the port of Buenos Aires alone, in 1929.

Eleven years after the discovery of America, the *Casa de Contratación* (the administrative body to superintend all trade with the new possessions), was established by Spain. This had its headquarters at Seville, in the Lonja (Exchange), to-day the repository of the Archives of the Indies. For two centuries all of Spain's trade with her colonies passed, either directly or indirectly, through this port. Many other cities desired to have a share in the lucrative trade with the Indies, and Cadiz did prosper, being the first port of call for all ships returning from the Western Hemisphere, but all trade eventually passed through Seville.

The various Provinces and separate colonies were not even allowed to trade with each other; it was necessary to transport the goods to Spain, to be forwarded to another part of America. This proved a great hardship, as in the case of the Province of Buenos Aires. In 1599, it was reported by the governor that not a single ship had arrived from Spain for years, and many of the settlers were practically destitute. Probably because of this occurrence and many others of a similar nature, the settlement of Buenos Aires was permitted a limited amount of trade with the other colonies. However, this



THE LONJA, SEVILLE, SPAIN

This famous building, now housing the Archives of the Indies, was completed in 1598 for the Casa de Contratación, the administrative body established by Spain to superintend trade with her New World possessions.

policy of free trade was reversed a few years later to the former one of restriction, the influence of the merchants at Seville and the powerful vice royalty of Peru being too great to allow the loss of trade gained by the Province of Buenos Aires.

Water-borne commerce between North and South America did not assume large proportions until the North American colonies secured their independence from Great Britain. This was probably due to the fact that the commerce of the possessions in both the Northern and the Southern Hemispheres was subjected to serious restrictions by the various countries, the idea prevalent at the time

being that colonies existed solely for the benefit and profit of the mother nations. The commerce of the colonies was, therefore, restricted to the respective empires, and serious penalties were invoked against merchants who essayed to trade outside the royal realms.

Once the independence of the thirteen colonies of North America was established, however, the yoke was released from at least one section of the Continent, and the New England merchantmen set about securing a share of the trade with the Spanish possessions in the western world.

In the few years following the Declaration of Independence, trade flourished between the Spanish West Indies and the North Atlantic coast—flour and the produce of fisheries being taken southward and exchanged for molasses, sugar, and rum, the last to be used by the New England traders to warm themselves through the cold winters.

The settlers of the newly formed United States early established themselves as important carriers by sea for other lands of the Western Hemisphere. In 1798 a shipload of salt meat and other cattle products was transported from Buenos Aires to Habana, demonstrating that Argentina, one of the greatest stock-raising countries to-day, has long had experience in cattle industries. It has been estimated that in 1795 exports of the United States to the Latin American colonies amounted to \$1,389,219, while imports from the colonies to the United States amounted to \$1,739,138.<sup>1</sup> In 1821, according to official figures of the United States Government, imports from Brazil amounted to \$585,626, while exports totaled \$1,224,761.

According to a manuscript recently prepared by Enrique Gil, Argentine writer and lecturer of prominence, in 1807 merchant ships from 5 of the 13 States of the Union made regular voyages to the River Plate, and the wool, hides, and tallow of the latter found an excellent market in the republic to the north. The same author cites many cases of business houses established in South America by United States citizens, some over a century ago, to facilitate trade between the republics of the River Plate and the United States. In many instances, these names are now well known in Argentine life, as for example the firm of Samuel B. Hale, Ltd., which at one time had 46 ships engaged in inter-American commerce.

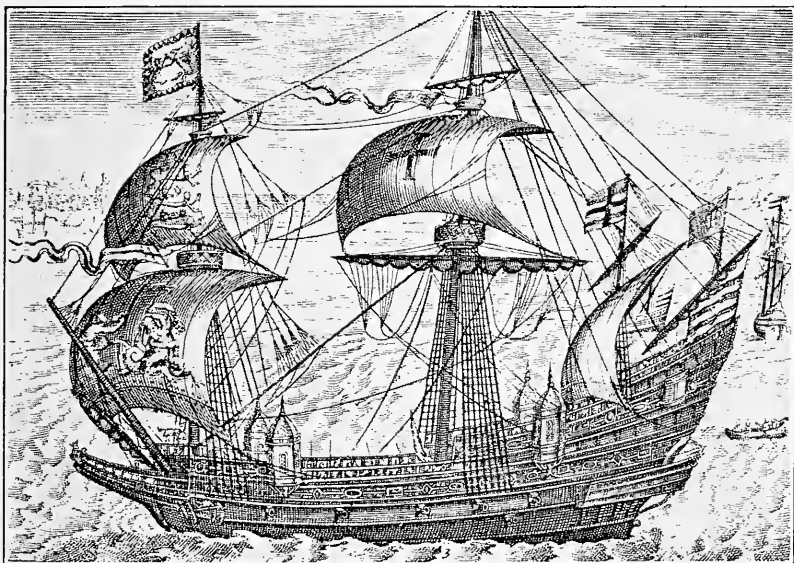
An extraordinary trade was that which was fostered between the port of Boston, Cuba, and other islands of the West Indies—the export of ice in sailing ships to the Tropics. In 1805 the first shipment was delivered to the West Indies. A few years later a monopoly on the sale of ice was secured in Habana and throughout Cuba, and some time later ice from Boston was being sold in Rio de Janeiro and finally in Calcutta, India

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<sup>1</sup> "Statistical View," by Pitkin.

After investing over a quarter of a million dollars before realizing any profit from enterprise, the "Ice King" wrote in his diary, with more than a trace of humor, "Drink . . . and be cool, that I who have suffered so much in the cause may be able to go home and keep myself warm."

An event of considerable significance was the construction and launching of the first steamship to be built in Latin America. Largely through the unceasing efforts of Vicente Rocafuerte, at one time President of Ecuador, the S. S. *San Vicente*, later rechristened the *Guayas*, was constructed at Guayaquil, where many sailing ships which played an important part in making history in Latin America



A GALLEON OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

In such picturesque vessels were carried cargoes of great riches from the Americas to the Old World.

were built. Work was begun early in 1840, but it was not until the middle of the following year that the propelling machinery, purchased in the United States, was installed and the ship made ready for launching.

A coincidence of interest occurred in October of the same year, when the *San Vicente* and the first vessel of the newly formed Pacific Steam Navigation Co. appeared on the horizon, and steamed into the harbor of Guayaquil at the same time—the first steamship constructed in Latin America and the first one to travel on a fixed schedule between Europe and South America.

The Pacific Steam Navigation Co. was the first to inaugurate a service of steamships between Europe and South America, and from

1841 on ships of this line departed from Liverpool on the 1st and 15th of each month for the West Indies, Venezuela, Colombia, Mexico, and the United States.

Regular communications between the countries of the Western Hemisphere, or rather as regular as could be attained with sailing vessels, had been established long before the advent of steamships. In 1823 sailing ships of the Red D Line were plying between La Guaira, Venezuela, and Philadelphia. In 1880 this company changed to steamships, and at present maintains a 7-day service between New York and Venezuelan ports.

Another early entrant in the maritime trade of the Western Hemisphere was the Ward Line, which in 1840 managed a few small schooners plying between Cuba and the United States. In the fleet of this company are now included two 20-knot ships which travel between New York, Cuban, and Mexican ports, carrying both first class and tourist passengers.

The pioneer in trade between the east coast of the United States and the west coast of South America was the W. R. Grace Co. Seventy-five years ago sailing vessels of this company were following their laborious course down the east coasts of the United States and South America, around storm-ridden Cape Horn and up to Valparaiso and Callao. Depositing their cargo, these vessels took on nitrates and guano and returned by the same route to New York, the round trip often taking more than six months.

The coming of steam power cut this time to about two and a half months, and with the construction of the railroad across the Isthmus of Panama in 1855, passenger traffic was greatly facilitated. As yet, however, freight traffic continued to be slow, for rates for the transportation of heavy goods on the Isthmian railway were very high. The completion of the Panama Canal was the accomplishment which allowed the manifold products of the west coast of South America to flow through a speedy and efficient channel. In 1918 the W. R. Grace Co. established the first regular steamship service to the west coast of South America from the United States; this served as additional encouragement to the Pacific coast ports of South America, whose trade had already increased tremendously during the four years following the opening of the canal.

To-day the Grace Line has direct services from the east and the south coasts of the United States to the west coast of South America, and from the west coast of the United States to the west coast of South America, as well as one from the east to the west coast of the United States via Central American ports. The Grace fleet comprises a total tonnage of 130,000, which is shortly to be augmented by four large ships to be placed in service between the Atlantic coast of the

United States, Central America, and the Pacific coast of the United States.

Within approximately 70 years the fleet of the United Fruit Co. has increased from a few small schooners to practically six score power-propelled vessels aggregating almost 450,000 tons. An interesting vessel of this line was the first steam-driven ship, placed in service in the eighties. She was a 3-masted schooner with a hollow mainmast, which was used as a smokestack. It is evident



A MERCHANT SAILING SHIP

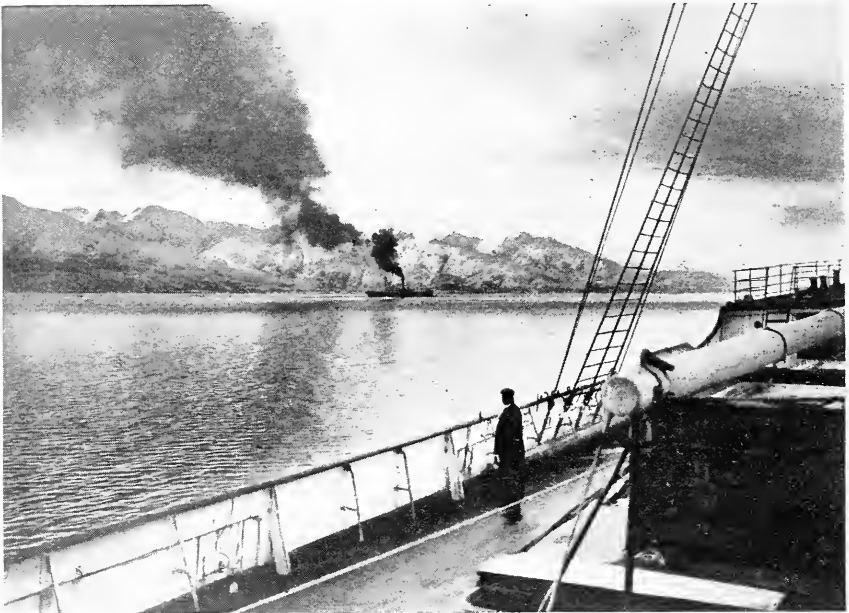
Long before the advent of steam-propelled ships, regular voyages were made by square-riggers between the Americas. Many sailing vessels which made maritime history in Latin America were built at Guayaquil.

that even late in the nineteenth century steam power was still considered a doubtful advantage.

At the present time the "Great White Fleet" includes vessels ranging from more than 7,000 tons to less than 1,500, most of which are engaged in passenger services and in the transportation of bananas, other tropical fruits, and general freight.

Regular passenger and freight services are now maintained by the United Fruit Co. to all Central American countries with the exception of El Salvador, together with regular lines to Cuba, the small islands of the West Indies, Panama, and the north coast of South America, from the east, south, and west coasts of the United States.

An important water transportation system in the Western Hemisphere is the Munson Steamship Line, operating from the east coast of the United States to Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, Buenos Aires, and other large ports on the east coast of South America. It is one of the principal means of communication between the two largest republics of North and South America, and functions on a fortnightly schedule with vessels which have yet to lose their laurels as the fastest ships serving these two parts of the globe. Every fortnight vessels of the line travel to and from sections of the world where the seasons are reversed. If a ship sails out of New York harbor in the dead of



A CHANNEL IN SOUTHERN CHILE

Passage through the Straits of Magellan in a modern vessel brings to mind the tedious voyage between the eastern ports of the United States and the Pacific coast of South America in the days of sailing vessels and slow steamers.

winter, two and a half weeks later it arrives at Buenos Aires in the middle of summer.

A line following a route similar to that of the Munson Co. is the Furness Prince, which operates large and modern vessels from New York to Buenos Aires via Rio de Janeiro, Santos, and Montevideo, in approximately the same time.

A steamship line famed throughout Latin America is the Lloyd Brazileiro, with headquarters at Rio de Janeiro. The service of this line, which in 1928 included 77 steamships, is very complete, ranging from separate weekly passenger and freight services from Rio de Janeiro to Belem on the north coast of Brazil and Rio Grande do Sul



on the south, to fortnightly sailings of passenger and freight vessels from the principal Brazilian seaports to the United States and to Europe. Another service which does much to bring together the commercial interests of this immense country is that from Manaos, almost 1,000 miles up the Amazon River, to Rio Grande do Sul in the extreme south. The Lloyd Brasileiro operates 16 separate services, including coastwise routes, and covers almost 1,000,000 miles in 224 separate voyages each year.

It is of interest to note that in the export of coffee from Santos, the Lloyd Brasileiro receives at least her share of this product for transport to foreign countries. Statistics show that from January to May, 1922, the Lloyd Brasileiro moved over 1,250,000 bags of coffee, while its closest competitor transported less than 300,000 during the same time; in fact, all the other steamship lines combined did not ship as many bags as did the Brazilian company.

A well-known shipping company serving the north coast of Colombia and Haiti is the Colombian Steamship Co., with headquarters in New York City. Organized as an outcome of the World War as the Raporel Steamship Co., it was taken over in 1920 by the Clyde Steamship Co., and in 1923 the Colombian Steamship Co. was formed, six vessels in the Colombia-Haiti service being purchased by the newly formed organization. Since 1923 these ships have traveled on a regular schedule to Colombian ports on the Atlantic Ocean and to Haitian ports, carrying a limited number of passengers and bringing to the United States from Caribbean regions large quantities of bananas, coffee, and hides.

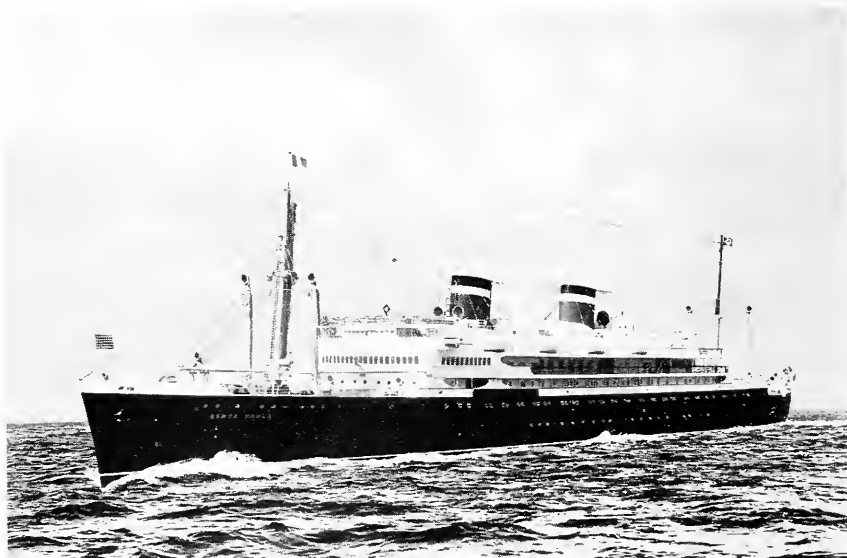
On August 6 the *Colombia*, a cargo-passenger ship of 5,500 gross tons, was launched and will sail on her maiden voyage about November 15. Her sister ship, the *Haiti*, is under construction and is expected to enter the service a month later.

Navigation of the Magdalena River in Colombia, which has brought strong language to many a skipper's lips, was solved by the executives of this company only after thorough study. It was found that in order to transport cargo on the Magdalena continuously throughout the wet and the dry seasons, it would be necessary to build special equipment. This was accordingly done, and now the Colombian Steamship Co. has more than 20 barges and 3 tugboats, especially constructed for the purpose, plying the Magdalena.

A steamship service far from the much traveled sea lanes, but one which offers much to the somewhat venturesome tourist, is the Menéndez Behety Line, operating from the southernmost habitable land in the world—the Chilean Territory of Magallanes, at the extreme end of South America—to Valparaiso, Chile, on the west coast of the southern continent. Vessels of this line, which has its

headquarters at Punta Arenas in the Straits of Magellan, carry passengers and cargo to a part of the globe which the average person does not picture as properly belonging to South America. During the winter months of June, July, and August, these vessels pass through winds, squalls, and snow storms which rarely have their counterpart in northern waters; but their hardy crews are accustomed to such a life.

A line whose vessels encounter conditions similar to those of the Menéndez Behety Line is the Chilean Inter-Ocean Navigation Co. Using a number of vessels of moderate size, the latter sends its ships on a regularly scheduled itinerary from Valparaiso through the



Courtesy of W. R. Grace & Co.

#### A MODERN LINER FOR INTERAMERICAN SERVICE

This is a model of one of the fleet of new steamers soon to be placed in regular service between east and west coast ports of the United States and Latin America.

Straits of Magellan and up the eastern coast of South America to Buenos Aires, Montevideo, and principal ports in Brazil, returning via the same route.

While it is impossible to mention here all the maritime services operating in the Western Hemisphere, it is important to note that the majority of the Latin American Republics are manifesting a keen interest in the development of national mercantile marine services, showing a desire to have a share in the transportation of their products to foreign lands and in the importation of commodities from other countries. Among the lines flying the flags of the various countries are the Compañía Sudamericana de Vapores (South Ameri-

# MARITIME SERVICES OPERATING BETWEEN THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS

FROM:	Arg.	Braz.	Chile	Col.	G.R.	Cuba	D.Rep.	Ec.	El Sal.	Gu.	Haiti	Hond.	Mex.	Nic.	Pan.	Par.	Peru	U.S.	Urug.	Ven.
Argentina.....		51	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	-	19	71	-
Brazil.....	50		1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	*4	21	48	-
Chile.....	3	1		14	-	2	-	16	-	-	-	-	1	-	18	-	22	10	-	2
Colombia.....	-	-	15		3	5	3	17	-	1	2	-	1	-	26	-	17	16	-	6
Costa Rica.....	-	-	-	4		2	-	-	5	7	-	3	4	5	9	-	-	7	-	2
Cuba.....	-	-	1	2	1		4	-	-	1	2	1	9	1	6	-	1	27	-	-
Dominican Republic..	-	-	-	2	-	4		-	-	1	6	1	1	-	2	-	-	10	-	2
Ecuador.....	-	-	17	16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	-	19	6	-	2
El Salvador.....	-	-	1	2	5	1	-	-		8	-	3	3	4	8	-	1	5	-	-
Guatemala.....	-	-	-	2	7	2	1	-	8		-	5	4	5	11	-	-	10	-	1
Haiti.....	-	-	-	2	-	2	6	-	-	-		-	-	-	2	-	-	8	-	4
Honduras.....	-	-	-	-	3	1	1	-	3	5	-	3	3	3	3	-	-	5	-	-
Mexico.....	-	-	2	3	4	10	1	-	4	4	-	3		3	8	-	2	22	-	1
Nicaragua.....	-	-	-	1	5	2	-	-	4	5	-	3	3		5	-	-	6	-	-
Panama.....	1	1	17	27	9	7	3	19	7	11	2	3	7	5		-	22	33	2	6
Paraguay.....	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Peru.....	-	*4	23	16	-	2	-	18	-	-	-	-	1	-	21	-	-	12	-	2
United States.....	17	19	11	16	7	24	10	7	6	10	8	5	21	6	31	-	13		17	5
Uruguay.....	71	49	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	19	-	-
Venezuela.....	-	-	2	6	2	-	2	2	-	1	4	-	1	-	6	-	2	5	-	-

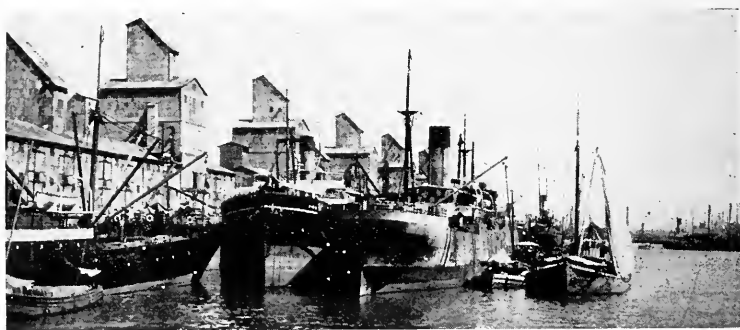
\*Brazil to Peru and vice versa via Amazon.

can Steamship Co.), of Chile; the Compañía Peruana de Vapores y Dique del Callao (Peruvian Steamship Co.); the Compañía Argentina de Navegación (Argentine Navigation Co.); the Empresa Naviera de Cuba (Cuban Steamship Co.), and the Líneas Nacionales de Navegación (National Navigation Lines of Mexico).

From a report recently prepared by the Pan American Union to show as far as information is available all the steamship communications which each of the countries, members of the Union, maintains with the others, several interesting comparisons may be drawn with conditions a few years ago. For example, in 1906 there were 8 regular steamship services between the United States and ports of the River Plate, and the fastest time from New York to Buenos Aires was 26 days. At the present time there are 17 from the United States to Argentina and 19 from Argentina to the United States, while 18 days from New York to Buenos Aires is considered good traveling time. It is also notable that in 1910 none of the ships on this trade route bore the flag of a republic of the Western Hemisphere, while now 8 of these services are under the colors of one or another of the 21 republics.

In connection with this report, a table has been prepared which appears on another page in this article, showing the number of maritime services between each of the American Republics. It indicates, for example, that Argentina has 51 direct services with Brazil, 3 with Chile, 1 with Colombia, and none with Costa Rica, while Brazil has 50 direct services with Argentina, Chile 3, and Colombia and Costa Rica have none. The large number of services between Argentina and Brazil and vice versa is accounted for by the number of ships from Europe and the United States which stop on both the southbound and northbound trips at Brazilian ports on the way to and from their southernmost calls at River Plate ports.

The increase both in the number of services and in the speed with which they are maintained is an indication of the growing importance of the manifold products which the Latin American nations have to offer and the world-wide market for them.



# BUENOS AIRES NEW AND OLD

By C. J. VIDELA-RIVERO

NINETEEN days after leaving New York on a comfortable steamer, passengers wake up to find themselves surrounded by a mud colored expanse of water—the River Plate. But suddenly, as they look ahead, a miracle happens: From the muddy waters the towers of a sunken city begin to emerge—Buenos Aires. Then the tugs come, the ship passes the breakwater, and presently they are landing at a covered concrete pier.

Conditions were far different on November 16, 1823, when the Hon. Cæsar Augustus Rodney, first United States Minister to Argentina, landed in Buenos Aires. His good old clipper had to lie at anchor several miles off the coast and her passengers and cargo go ashore in the lifeboats. The river was too shallow to allow a sea-going vessel to come close to its southern bank, and the man-made channels of to-day had not even been imagined. In fact, the river was too shallow even for lifeboats. That was the *raison d'être* of the strange carts built with enormous wheels and drawn by several horses, that came to meet the boats a few hundred yards off the beach. They were deep-water carts, those *carretas*; it was beneath their dignity to take their cargoes ashore. That task was left to the lighter *carretillas*, amphibian vehicles of smaller wheels and lesser horsepower.

Mr. Rodney, despite his jovial disposition, must have felt rather discouraged at the sight that greeted his eyes after his third transshipment that day. The Riverside Drive of present-day Buenos Aires (*Avenida Costanera*) was then non-existent. The gardens that now give a somewhat Champs-Élysées background to the dock warehouses were still a part of Utopia at that time. The town's refuse was dumped on the beach; here and there an overlarge catch of fish had been thrown away, possibly to accelerate the reincarnation of their souls; a few dead horses, laboriously tugged through the streets, had also been left there. Yet some progressive spirits had already given the matter careful thought. Señor Rivadavia, later President of the Republic, invited Mr. James Bevens, an American hydraulic engineer, to study and design pier facilities. Monsieur Cattelin, a French military engineer, received a similar invitation. (Incidentally, Mr. Bevens did not approve of M. Cattelin. The American and his wife were deeply religious Quakers, whose lives, dress, and habits bespoke the severity of God-fearing pioneers. M. Cattelin was perhaps a little too mundane for them. Dressed in his colorful uniform,

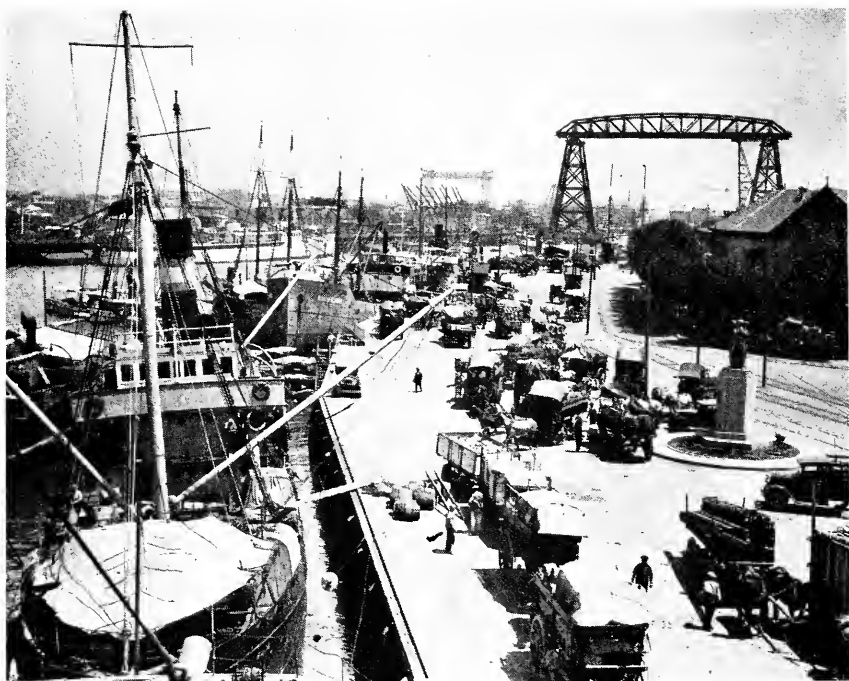


Photo by Arthur Bauer

#### THE PORT OF BUENOS AIRES

Upper: In the early nineteenth century lifeboats carried passengers and cargo from the vessels anchored some distance off the coast to shallow water, where they were met by large-wheeled horse-drawn carts. Lower: A small section of the waterfront of present day Buenos Aires, one of the great ports of the world.

he was wont to ride horseback late in the afternoon, accompanied by an attendant, also in uniform; his sophisticated manners, his polished *savoir-faire*, and his facile wit were, to his colleague, evidence of sinfulness.)

Not much more encouraging than the beach was the aspect of "downtown." Instead of the tall buildings of to-day, the wide tree-lined avenues with their busses, street-cars, automobiles, electric signs, and general air of hustle and bustle, then there were only squalid rows of 1-story houses, sometimes whitewashed, but more often not.

The change wrought upon building construction in Buenos Aires by the magic wand of a century is really breathtaking. It is indeed hard to believe that the Avenida de Mayo, the Diagonal Norte, the Calle Florida, teeming with metropolitan throngs and lined by smart shops of all descriptions, stand on the same land occupied a hundred years ago by houses that were little more than farms. The asphalt pavements of to-day were dust roads in the eighteen twenties. Needless to say, the rains played havoc with the streets. Large pools of stagnant water, which were slowly transformed into mud flats if given sufficient time, gave a Venetian touch to the landscape. Ox carts coming from the Provinces in long caravans escorted by numerous riders did not improve the condition of the flats. Some public-spirited citizens, however, magnanimously contributed to civic progress by having stepping-stones placed across the streets, or, occasionally, a wooden plank for the belles to walk on without fear of spattering their dainty gowns.

The spacious sidewalks of to-day, which harbor café tables under awnings, had poor antecedents in the distant eighteen twenties. They were sidewalks only by courtesy, unpaved and narrow; their width was still further diminished by protruding window gratings. Stealthy figures would often move noiselessly along those sidewalks, stop, give a quick glance of inspection through the bars, and then unobtrusively produce a fishing pole. Dexterous hands introduced the rod between two window bars, and soon withdrew it, with a watch, coat, or other valuable merrily dangling from the hook.

The bronze lighting standards with their artistic opaque glass lamps, the pride of present-day avenues, are lineal descendants of the humble and inadequate tallow candles of yore, protected against wind and rain by equally humble glass cases. As a matter of history, however, most of the street-lighting was done by the pedestrians themselves. A negro slave holding a storm-lamp at the end of a stick lighted the way for his masters. This prevented painful bumps against window gratings, unwelcome stumbles into pools, and disagreeable encounters with frogs.

The distant twenties could not boast of a *de luxe* police force, such as Buenos Aires now maintains. True, some faultfinders criticize the attire of present-day policemen, because, they claim, it resembles

the uniform of a private chauffeur; such critics would have found more than costume to decry a century ago. Night patrolling was then intrusted to *serenos* (watchmen). Few and far between, those ghostlike guards patrolled the streets after dark, garbed in ponchos and armed with short lances, at the end of which dangled lanterns. Theirs was a double duty: To enforce the law, and to keep the public informed as to the hour and the weather. Their chant could be heard all through the night: "Ten o'clock and it's raining!" "Midnight and it's fine!"

Nocturnal music, now and then, has also changed. Automobile horns, street-car bells, raucous loud-speakers, traffic policemen's whistles, newsboys' cries, compose to-day's symphony. The distant twenties were more melodious, for then serenading was at its zenith. Groups of young guitar players made the rounds at night. After a little preliminary strumming, a love song would break the silence of



AVENIDA DE MAYO  
BUENOS AIRES

This splendid boulevard, 120 feet wide and a mile long, is lined with smart shops and fine buildings. Subway entrances appear in the foreground.

the night. Then the lady to whom the song was dedicated would appear at the window; there would be thanks, glances, perhaps a flower, and the band would be off to other balconies.

What possibly amounts to a world record in the matter of serenades was attained in that period. Don Francisco Munilla, a café owner, was a music lover and very competent pianist who conceived the idea of serenading the town with a piano and a whole male chorus. Four husky porters carried the piano, and other servants took along the music-stands and necessary paraphernalia. The serenade lasted an entire night and was the talk of the town for many a year to come.

This leads us to the all-important subject of opera. Facing the Plaza Lavalle in Buenos Aires stands an imposing building which occupies an entire block. Wide marble steps lead to a spacious foyer, where a grand staircase adds a note of splendor. Within are upholstered seats, red plush carpets, the "diamond horseshoe." Great



names find a familiar echo here: Caruso, Titto Ruffo, Journet, Schipa, Galli-Curci, Lauri-Volpi, Lily Pons, Tulio Serafin. The corps de ballet, the orchestra, and the chorus are permanent, supported by the city. Without stand Rolls-Royces, Renaults, Hispano-Suizas, Packards, liveried chauffeurs, footmen. It is the Teatro Colón, the opera house of Buenos Aires, built on what was farm land in 1823, when the town had its opera première.

The first performances were held at the Teatro Argentino, a ramshackle stable lighted with candles. Many patrons protested, apparently in vain, against footlights that shone on both the stage and the orchestra for lack of a board or other contrivance to throw the light where it was needed. The prompter's shell was of such generous proportions that one of the first Italian tenors fell into the prompter's pit while singing a comic aria, an incident which elicited loud laughter because it was taken by the audience as part of the performance.

#### AVENIDA PRESIDENTE ROQUE SAENZ PEÑA

Many blocks of old buildings were razed to permit the construction of this fine new avenue, also known as the Diagonal Norte, through the heart of the city.



The mechanical equipment amounted to nothing, if one considers the fact that the curtain was raised in the following manner: Four heavy stage-hands, two at each side, climbed a ladder to the top of the curtain; then, at the proper time, they seized the ropes and jumped to the floor, thus lifting the curtain into position.

The boxes, of which there were about twenty-five "low" and as many "high" (on the second floor), did not have any seats. The box-holders had to provide their own chairs. For many years the boxes did not have any doors, with the result that many unprincipled intruders crowded around the doorways, to the great annoyance of the legitimate occupants.

The gallery was an exclusively feminine domain, considered informal. Young ladies could meet there to exchange confidences and secret slips of paper, while the mothers pretended not to see. Señorita A would promise, for example, that when young Señor B called at her



THE TEATRO COLÓN, BUENOS AIRES

This building, which ranks with the fine opera houses of the world, was opened May 25, 1908, replacing an earlier theater of the same name.

house, she would discreetly send a messenger to Señorita C with the news, so that she could call with every appearance of innocence.

The répertoire of the 1832 season of the Teatro Argentino included *Otello*, *Cenerentola*, and the *Barber of Seville*. The chorus had been recruited from among the Italian residents who graciously consented to leave their shoemakers' benches before the usual time.

As for the theater, it is interesting to note that Shakespearean subjects were not unknown in Buenos Aires after 1824. Mr. Love, editor of *The British Packet*, perhaps the first English-language paper published in that city, wrote in 1825: "Othello is performed every once in a while; not Shakespeare's Othello, but a Spanish translation from the French, full of absurdities that an Englishman provided with the average amount of patience could not tolerate."

At this period a revolution in fashion attacked what seemed to many the very foundations of Buenos Aires society. Women declared their independence from Spanish fashions, and mantillas and high combs were banished. The influence of French couturiers upon Argentine femininity was in the ascendant, much to the discomfort of

the old-fashioned. Sedate matrons and young ladies waited anxiously for the arrival of mail packets with the latest novelties from Paris.

The Spanish dress had been relatively short, as dresses went in that genteel age. The French invasion lengthened it considerably, adding innumerable frills, ribbons, and furbelows. Petticoats varied in number from 1 to 14 or 16. Sleeves were of the balloon type, stuffed with wool, cotton, or other material. Opera pumps were the rage. Hair dressing attained a perfection as complex as the most ambitious coiffeur of to-day could desire. Artificial curls were sometimes glued at the temples, to increase the devastating power of feminine charm.

Another revolution was also under way at the time: The hospitality of the home was giving way to a newfangled institution—the hotel. The large modern hostelries of Buenos Aires, exponents of sanitary plumbing, private baths, de luxe suites (and de luxe bills), evoke the memory of the pioneers in the field, the Englishmen Faunch, Keen, and Smith, and the enterprising and energetic American Mrs. Thorn. Theirs were the hotels whose clientèle was the élite, both Argentine and foreign; for narrow nationalism did not exist, immigration had not yet brought thousands of European laborers into Buenos Aires, and foreigners were well received in the most exclusive circles.

Catering to the poorer classes were the *fondas*, which managed to make themselves highly conspicuous by the spicy odor—perceptible at quite a distance—of their viands; from these inns there issued at night strains played on the guitar, drawling provincial accents, and not infrequently the sound of clashing knives.

Faunch's Hotel was the most fashionable place for a number of years. It was there that a great celebration took place on January 22, 1825, to commemorate the battle of Ayacucho, the final victory of South America over Spain. The consular corps joined in the festivities. Mr. Poussett, the British vice consul, was seen arm in arm with Mr. Slocum, his American colleague. "Fifty years ago," says Mr. Love in *The British Packet* of that date, "such an occurrence would have been considered fantastic—a British consul joining with a consul of



A PROMENADE COSTUME OF OLD  
BUENOS AIRES

Reproduced from an illustration dated 1832.



# MONUMENT TO CAESAR AUGUSTUS RODNEY IN BUENOS AIRES

As a tribute to the first United States Minister to Argentina, who died in Buenos Aires in 1824, the Argentine Government erected this memorial in St. John's Anglican Church.



MARKET PLACE, BUENOS AIRES OF LONG AGO

Reproduced from Vidal's "Picturesque Illustrations of Buenos Aires and Montevideo," published in London, 1820.

England's former colony in a celebration of the independence of another part of the American continent."

It was also at Faunch's that the Argentine Government had given, the May before, an official banquet in honor of Mr. Rodney, to which 127 persons were invited. It was the last function that he attended, for he died suddenly 15 days later, still in the prime of life, highly popular, and beloved by all who knew him. At his very impressive funeral the funeral coach, or hearse, such as is still used in Buenos Aires, made its first appearance.

The Argentine Government issued the following decree on the day of his death:

June 10, 1824: The death of Mr. Cæsar Augustus Rodney, minister plenipotentiary of the United States, has produced in the mind of the Government of Buenos Aires all the regret which is inspired by the loss to his country of such a distinguished citizen, and to all America of a jealous defender of its rights, especially connected with the Provinces of the River Plate.

The Government, therefore, desirous of giving a public testimony of this regret and of the regard it has for him, has enacted and decreed:

1. That the Government shall erect, as a proof of its gratitude, a funeral monument where the remains of the Hon. Cæsar Augustus Rodney will rest.

2. The cost of the monument shall be covered by funds from the appropriation for discretionary expenses of the Government.

HERAS.

MANUEL JOSÉ GARCIA.

# OVER THE ANDES TO THE AMAZON

By GRAHAM M. KER

MY wife and I sailed from New York, passed through the Panama Canal, and disembarked at the Peruvian seaport of Callao, en route by steamer, rail, auto, and airplane to Iquitos. About this city on the Amazon the axe of the mahogany exporter is blazing the way to a possible return of prosperity, now lost to the jungle, but at its peak in those days two decades ago when wild rubber commanded such fabulous prices in the markets of the world.

From Callao an automobile ride of 7 miles took us to Lima, the capital, founded by the Spanish conquerors nearly a century before our own settlement at Jamestown.

Lima, "the City of Kings," is a fascinating medley of the past and the present. Here, for example, stands the former hall of the Inquisition, now the Senate Chamber, the exquisitely carved woodwork of its interior equaled only by that of the famous old Torre Tagle Palace, the present home of the Ministry of Foreign Relations. There rises the ornately carved façade of the church of San Agustín, one of the loveliest in the Americas. The University of San Marcos, probably the oldest institution of its kind in the Western Hemisphere, proudly traces its origin to a royal decree of 1551. Yet down in the newer part of the city rise strikingly handsome buildings of modern design and construction. And everywhere flowers grow in the greatest profusion.

But it was not with Lima that we were concerned, charming though she is. We were bound for the mighty Amazon. A glance at a relief map of South America will show where the various ranges of the Andes converge in Peru, forming a narrow barrier between the West Coast and the Amazon Basin. This great mountain wall, towering to tremendous heights, now lay across our path.

The morning after our arrival in Lima we continued on our way, comfortably watching the charming landscape from the train as it left the narrow coastal plain and plunged into the rocky gorges of the sierra, working its way upward toward the summit. We had been cautioned against *soroche*, the peculiar sickness affecting travelers in the high altitudes; therefore, although feeling perfectly well and enjoying the trip, we let the lunch hour go by unobserved.

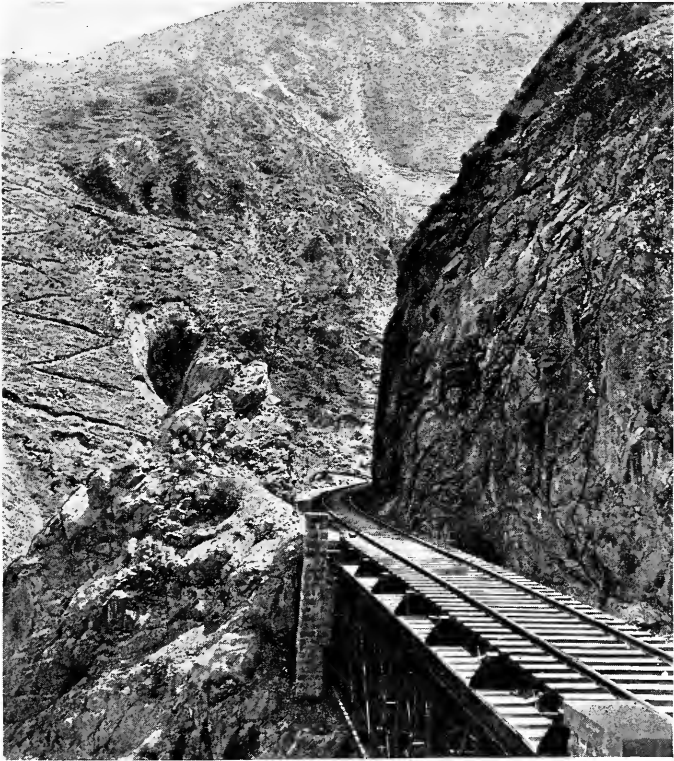
By noon we had risen to an altitude of 10,000 feet. Ascending as we did through rock-walled canyons, at times seemingly insurmountable cliffs rose before us to bar our way. By zigzag paths cut into

their precipitous faces we scaled many; through countless tunnels we pierced the rest. A young woman in our car fainted, overcome by the rarity of the atmosphere; but oxygen, kept ever ready for such emergencies, was promptly administered and she soon recovered.

Early afternoon brought us to the crowning point of our climb, and we passed through the final tunnel, 16,000 feet above sea level. The hills opened up about us, and we found ourselves gently descending through mountain pastures surrounded by snow-capped peaks. Long trains of llamas, the camel-like pack beasts of the Andes, could be

CURVES ON  
THE CEN-  
TRAL RAIL-  
ROAD OF  
PERU

In the journey of 140 miles by rail across the Andean Range from Lima to Oroya the train traverses innumerable tunnels and bridges.



seen wending their way with their characteristically dignified stride along near-by routes of travel; and we knew that beyond our sight, but possibly viewing us from a safe distance, were alpacas and vicuñas running wild in their native habitat.

Though our train had left Lima at 7 in the morning, it was not yet eventide when we pulled into Oroya, and our trip by rail was over. Since we were still more than 12,000 feet above the sea, however, we decided to spend the night at Tarma, a quaint little town nestling in a valley several thousand feet down the eastern slope.

Our automobile was soon on its way, out past the smelter of the Cerro de Pasco copper mines; the mountain air was chilly but we

were wrapped in heavy clothing and felt no discomfort. All went well, and by 9 in the evening we had made ourselves at home in the comfortable hotel in Tarma and were ready to enjoy the good dinner our host prepared for us.

The next morning the young chief of the San Ramon air base, who was to be our pilot on the flight over the foothills the following day, called at the hotel to say that it would be best to leave for the flying field in the afternoon. Our heavy baggage had already been disposed of: It was to be taken by auto truck down to La Merced, thence by pack mule across the old Pichis trail for seven days, and eventually



THE TOWN OF TARMA

In the quaint town of Tarma, a few thousand feet down the eastern slope of the Andes, the author spent the first night of the trip from Lima to Iquitos.

down the river by the mail launch to Iquitos, where it would appear a month later.

We enjoyed the cool mountain air at Tarma, where we strolled about for hours. Its market place was typical of such highland towns. Vendors, mostly women in colorful woolen garb, lent picturesqueness to the plaza. Their only stock in trade was frequently little piles of peanuts. Equally meager supplies of salt, shelled corn, beans, frozen potatoes, flowers—sometimes a single bunch—claimed the attention of other vendors as they squatted, chatting in the sun. At the stalls within were brilliantly-colored dress materials, shawls, sandals, native pottery, baskets, and other simple necessities. Donkeys stood about, relieved of their cargoes of fruits and vegetables



from the more fertile spots in the valley below; llamas came swinging in from the higher lands, bearing loads of the current fuel of the mountains—dung from their own grazing grounds.

Early in the afternoon Mrs. Ker and I bade good-bye to Tarma, and with our pilot and the chauffeur soon found ourselves speeding down a hazardous 1-way automobile road cut into the wall of a great canyon, in whose depths tumbled a wild mountain river plunging to the lowlands. As we whirled dizzily along the face of the cliff we could see our everdescending road zigzagging back and forth, often a thousand feet or more directly below. Once we discerned the dim



Photograph by Albert C. Smith

#### THE ROAD DOWN THE TARMA VALLEY

The descent of the zigzagging 1-way road cut into the canyon wall proved a thrilling experience.

outline of the twisted wreckage of an automobile, the mute witness to some tragedy of the past. Landslides are frequent, and woe betide the traveler caught by them as they hurl their tons of rock down across the road.

We had been anticipating a sensational experience the following day, for our air trip was our first flight, but here we were, still on terra firma, holding our breath while the chauffeur, contemptuously familiar with the danger, stepped hard on the gas and whirled us along that dizzy path with but a few inches of roadway at times between our outer wheels and a plunge to certain death.

Evening was fast upon us when we reached the floor of the canyon and, care free once more, spun happily along a pretty road past coffee plantations and humble holdings. After the chill of the mountain heights the air in the valley was soft, and overcoats and sweaters were discarded. Lights were burning in San Ramon as we drove up to the little hotel with keen appetites, ready for the simple fare of its modest board.

We were glad to find our bedroom windows screened with wire, and our cots covered with cotton netting, for mosquitoes are numerous in San Ramon. In relaxation and comparative comfort we retired for the night. Hardly had we fallen asleep it seemed, when, well before sunrise, we were called and advised that breakfast was prepared and the automobile ready to take us to the flying field. There we found an ample hangar with three American planes, while close by was a neat little wooden bungalow, the headquarters of the aviators.

San Ramon is the western terminus of the East Peruvian air line. It lies in a pocket in the foothills, whence it is necessary to rise high in the air before starting on the eastward flight. Ugly-looking clouds hung low over the hills as we sat on the porch of the bungalow chatting with the aviation officers. One was an American, veteran of many adventures; the other two, Peruvians, were graduates of the naval flying school in Lima. Our pilot had been given command of the post in recognition of his skill and familiarity with the difficult terrain of this region, where he had been bred.

Weather conditions being somewhat doubtful, one of the pilots mounted above the clouds to see what the prospects were. In a few minutes we saw him descending, and anxiously awaited his verdict. It was unfavorable, so we continued our chat until 2 in the afternoon, when the airway was clear. Donning caps and goggles, we mounted to the seat of our 2-passenger plane; the pilot was already in place behind us, and we were off on our first flight.

Below us as we passed out over the foothills lay fleecy cloud banks penetrated in spots by timbered heights. These were soon left behind, the sky below us cleared, and a vast panorama of hills spread out in all directions. Rivers tumbling along through canyons appeared as faint threads of white. It was an awe-inspiring sight to landlubbers gazing for the first time down upon the earth.

The mountains gradually disappeared and the rivers grew larger as we sped on toward the Amazon. Frequently the pilot handed us hurriedly scrawled notes calling attention to salient features in the landscape. A sparsely inhabited spot on a river bank, he told us, was the first mail station; swooping low, he dropped a bag of mail into the clearing. At 4.30 in the afternoon he passed us a final note and pointed to a group of buildings just coming into sight. The word he had written was "Masisea"—the end of our day's journey. The field

was small, but we made an easy landing, grateful for a perfect flight through what is at times a bad bit of air.

(Not long after this, one of the young pilots we had met in San Ramon, who had already won a reputation for cool-headedness, left on the same route with two passengers. Seven thousand feet above the mountainous terrain beyond the divide his motor stalled. Far in the distance he saw the silver glint of a mountain river; the hills below him were rugged, broken, covered with timber. No landing was possible there; his only chance in a thousand was to find a soft spot along the distant river's bank. Quick as a flash he turned and dived with terrific speed. There followed a pull on the stick, a long horizontal glide, then another dive, another glide, again and again, until



Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip

#### SAN RAMON AVIATION FIELD

From San Ramon, in the foothills of the Andes, regular air service is maintained to Iquitos.

the river lay below. He spied a silt-filled, reed-grown pocket by the water's edge; there was a crash, the machine was wrecked, but all lives were saved.)

Here at Masisea we found again a neat little bungalow, free from all pretensions of beauty, and almost entirely free from furniture as well; but it was new and clean, the porch and doors were screened, and it contained two good shower baths, whose excellence we had time to prove before wending our way up the river bank to the modest abode of the Governor of the District. Under a lean-to of his palm-thatched house we sat down to a simple meal, his solicitous women folk urging us to eat heartily. The balmy air of the tropic night invited a stroll, but the mosquitoes forced us, instead, to return to the



Marshall Field Amazon Expedition photograph

#### IQUITOS FROM THE AIR

Iquitos lies at the head of Amazon River navigation, more than 2,300 miles from the Atlantic seacoast.

protection of our screened-in bungalow. On the way we met a party of five Indians, just arrived by canoe from one of the upper rivers, to meet and conduct back to their settlement an American missionary who was working among them. They wore a garment of hand-woven wool like an inverted bag with an opening for the head. Their thick, black, straight hair was cut in bangs across the forehead. Wild creatures they looked, unlike so many of the Indians met along the river ways and mountain roads.

One of the officers kindly put his cot, the only one in the bungalow, at Mrs. Ker's disposal for the night, and slept on the floor with the rest of us.

The next morning bright and early we were up and ready, greatly pleased that we were to have the chief of the East Peruvian air service as pilot on the last lap of our journey. The day before we had been out to the hangar to inspect our new plane, again a 2-passenger machine, but this time a hydroplane, for now our route was to follow the general course of the river.

At 8.30 we were off, heading down river for Iquitos, only three or four hundred miles distant. We were not always within gliding distance of the river, and though the monotonous green of the jungle,

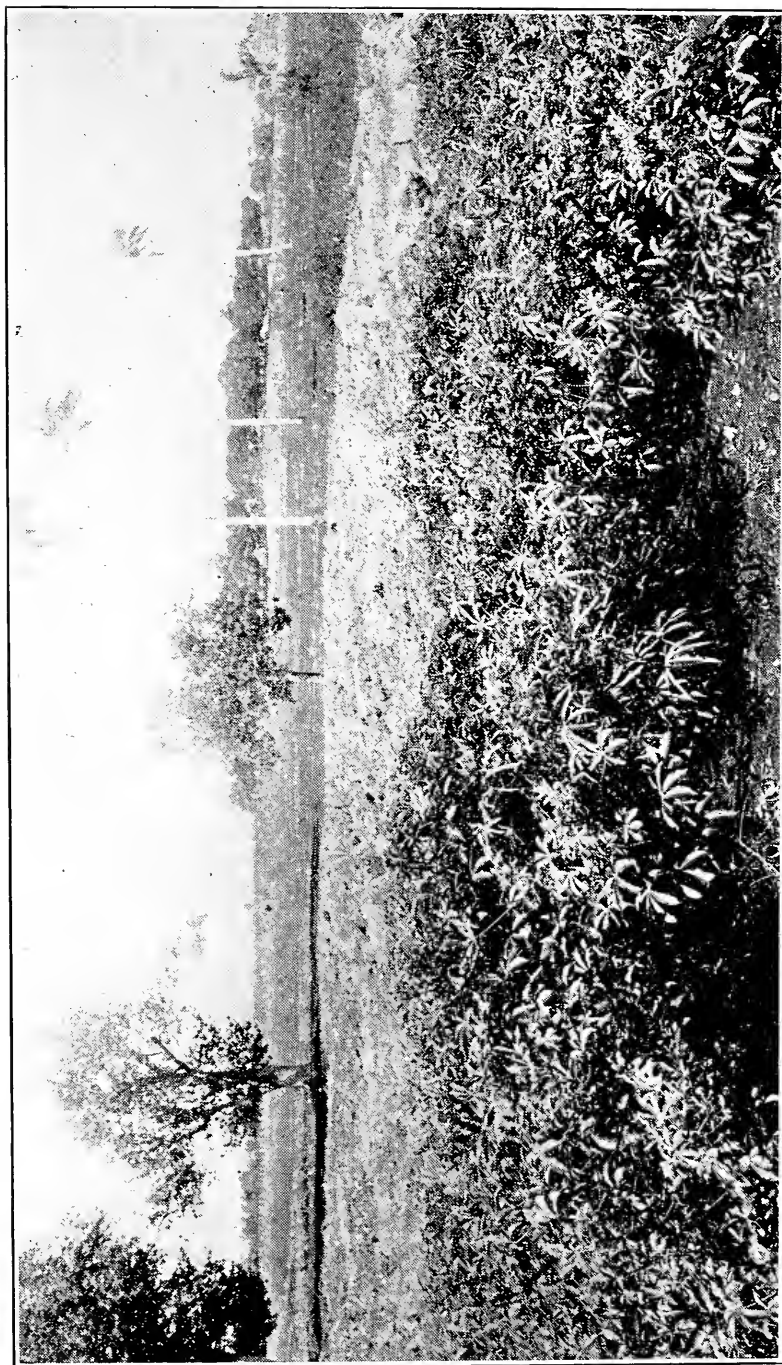
2,000 feet below us, looked soft and safe, we realized its deceptive appearance and the probable hopelessness of ever getting out of it alive if forced to seek a landing in the branches of its mighty trees. Against all that background of green and water, hovering spots of white—innumerable herons—were the only signs of life, although we knew the jungle to be teeming with parrots and other birds of the most brilliant plumage, boa constrictors and anacondas, deer and jaguars, tapirs and crocodiles, monkeys of countless varieties, beautiful butterflies, and a thousand different forms of life.

An hour after leaving Masisea we dropped down for gasoline at Contamana, a river town on the Ucayali gradually being washed away by the floods of that mighty river; we were off once more, the seemingly interminable jungle stretching away in all directions. We reached Requena, circled low, dropped a package of mail in the plaza, and again headed for Iquitos.

We had been gone from Masisea five hours. A hard wind was blowing against us, drops of rain stung us in the face, and we felt the vibration of the struts, and sudden jerks as we dropped in the air pockets. We rose to higher levels and a superb view opened below us—the junction of the Ucayali and Marañon rivers, the two great confluent of the Amazon.

An hour more and we saw in the distance on the river bank a glistening spot of white which gradually resolved itself into a city—Iquitos at last. The plane descended in a graceful spiral, and we found ourselves on the bosom of the Amazon. Our journey was over, and Mrs. Ker had the distinction of being the first American woman to make the flight.

The little city of Iquitos, with its 20,000 inhabitants, lies only 328 feet above the level of the Atlantic; an ocean-going steamer was loading at the dock when we arrived, although the ocean is 2,400 miles distant. Surprising, you say? Yes, and another surprise was in store for us, a pleasant one, for never in our travels had we met people of greater charm than those whom we were to know in this little city, hidden in the heart of the jungle, 3 degrees south of the equator.



Courtesy of Revista de Agricultura, Comercio y Trabajo, Habana

#### A FIELD OF CASSAVA IN CUBA

Indigenous to tropical Latin America, the cassava is one of the world's most widely used economic plants. Its derivatives include meal and flour, in addition to the generally known tapioca, and a starch which is extensively used by laundries of the United States. Products of the plant are also utilized as a livestock feed, and in the manufacture of glues, pastes, and explosives.

# CASSAVA: AN ECONOMIC PLANT NATIVE TO LATIN AMERICA

By JOSÉ L. COLOM

*Chief, Division of Agricultural Cooperation, Pan American Union*

THE cassava is one of the most extensively grown and widely used economic plants known to man. With the exception of corn, beans, and potatoes, it is of all the indigenous plants of America the one whose culture is most widespread throughout the world. It grows well in every tropical country, and is to be found in all lands within the limits of 30° latitude north and south of the Equator where growing conditions are at all favorable. The tuberous, starchy root of this plant forms the chief article of diet for millions of tropical people; in this rôle it ranks perhaps next to rice. While the inhabitants of temperate regions are familiar with only one or two of its manufactured products, such as the tapioca eaten occasionally as a dessert or used in the preparation of other foods, in many parts of South and Central America cassava is eaten by all classes of society twice a day nearly every day in the year. One of the most nutritious foods known, it is propagated very easily and has indeed been growing in a wild state in tropical America since before the Spanish and Portuguese settled in that part of the western world. Yet it is only in comparatively recent years that peoples of the Tropics, particularly in the cassava's native American habitat, began to realize its importance as an economic plant.

## NOMENCLATURE

In the United States the name cassava is properly given to the plant *Manihot utilissima* Pohl., though even here it is known also by various others. Other scientific names applied are *Jatropha manihot* Linn., and *Janipha manihot* H. B. K., while in South America the common names by which it is known include manihot, manioc, ayup, and yuca. For obvious reasons it is sometimes referred to as the tapioca plant or the sweetpotato tree, the latter because of a similarity in the root growth of the two plants. When it was introduced into India it was given a dozen or more different vernacular names in the various states, which literally translated mean "bread yam," "stick sweetpotato," "flour tree," and similar descriptive phrases.

## BOTANIC DESCRIPTION

The cultivated cassava is a shrubby tree growing 3 to 10 feet in height, with stem and branches forking regularly in threes. It has long-

petioled palmately-parted leaves of from 5 to 13 divisions, reaching nearly to the base, elliptical in outline and forming fingers. In appearance the plant resembles the castor-bean (*Ricinus communis* Linn.), both being genera of the *Euphorbiaceæ* family. The color of the roots varies from dark red to light yellow or almost white, their length from 1 to 6 or 8 feet or more, and their diameter from 1½ to 2½ inches. There are usually from 3 to 5 storage roots, in which starch is kept as food for the plant; they grow radially from the base of the plant and rather close to the surface of the ground and are the roots of commercial importance.

Two types of cultivated cassava are usually designated, "bitter" and "sweet," the former represented by the species *Manihot utilissima* Pohl., and the latter by *Manihot aipi* Plon. The distinction is due to the presence in their roots of the volatile hydrocyanic (prussic) acid compound, the former type containing considerably more than the latter, or as much as 0.03 per cent and more of the root content. In spite of this fact, varieties of the bitter cassava are much more widely used as food in the Tropics, mainly because they produce more abundantly. In both types most of the acid is lost by processing the roots, or driven off by heat in drying the starch or roasting or cooking the roots.

There are many different varieties now known, though only a few are commercially important. In Java, where perhaps greater strides have been taken in cassava cultivation and exploitation than elsewhere, 25 are considered to be important, while in the Philippines only 2 or 3 are of wide distribution. In 1919, J. Zehntner made a study of 74 different varieties of Brazilian cassava. Many new ones have been developed from time to time, all through propagation by seeds; the commercial system of propagation, which will be discussed later, is by means of cuttings.

#### CHEMICAL ANALYSIS

In view of the growing interest shown by many countries in the use of cassava flour as a substitute for wheat flour, it may be worthwhile to say something about its composition. The Bureau of Chemistry of the United States Department of Agriculture found that cassava flour could not be substituted in full for wheat flour in making bread, largely because of its excessive carbohydrate content and lack of nitrogenous bodies. For instance, ordinary wheat flour contains nitrogenous compounds varying from 8 to 14 per cent, while in cassava flour they rarely are as much as 2 per cent. For this reason the rôle of cassava flour in bread making must necessarily be confined to that of a partial substitute to be used with wheat flour, at least if present baking methods continue.



The chemical composition of cassava roots and flour, as determined in the bureau laboratory, is shown in the following tables:

*Composition of cassava root (dry matter)*

	Per cent
Ash.....	1. 94
Petroleum ether extract (fat).....	1. 27
Ether extract (resins, organic acids, etc.).....	. 74
Alcohol extract (amides, sugars, glucosides, etc.).....	17. 43
Crude fiber.....	4. 03
Starch.....	71. 85
Protein (nitrogen $\times$ 6.25).....	3. 47
Total.....	100. 73

*Composition of cassava flour—two experiments*

	Per cent	Per cent
Moisture.....	10. 56	11. 86
Ash.....	1. 86	1. 13
Petroleum ether extract (fat).....	1. 50	. 86
Ether extract (resins and organic acids).....	. 64	. 43
Alcohol extract (amides, sugars, glucosides).....	13. 69	4. 50
Dextrin, gum, etc., by difference.....	2. 85	5. 63
Crude fiber.....	2. 96	4. 15
Protein (nitrogen $\times$ 6.25).....	1. 31	1. 31
Starch.....	64. 63	70. 13
Total.....	100. 00	100. 00

A word should be said about the "poisonous" hydrocyanic (prussic) acid found in cassava roots. It is possible that the roots of both bitter and sweet types contain at a certain stage a small amount of a substance which, when partly cooked and allowed to start fermenting, may release hydrocyanic acid; yet the fresh raw and the roasted or boiled roots usually may be eaten with impunity. There has never been recorded in the United States any case of poisoning from cassava; a possible explanation advanced for this is that the shorter growing season and different climatic conditions in this country result in producing a plant with a smaller hydrocyanic content. It is true that only the sweet varieties are grown in the United States.

It has been claimed that the main difference between the sweet and bitter types is that in the former the hydrocyanic-acid compound is found only in the bark of the roots, and hence is removed by peeling, while in the bitter type this poisonous compound permeates the entire root. In the latter this poison must be eliminated by the application of sufficient heat to release it in the form of gas. Usually exposure for some time to the direct rays of the sun is sufficient; certainly roasting or cooking the roots renders them safe to eat.

## HISTORY

The present cultivated varieties of cassava are probably all traceable to a common ancestor which was found growing wild in the valley of the Amazon River when the white men landed there in the late fifteenth and early sixteenth centuries. Von den Stein reported its cultivation in northern Brazil among the Bacairi Indians, who had never before seen a white man, while Peckolt claims that the Portuguese found it under crude cultivation by the Guarany and Tupinambás. In 1548 Pinzón makes the first scientific reference to manioc as being indigenous to Brazil, thriving as far as 3° south latitude, and growing at a height of 3,000 feet above sea level.

Its ease of cultivation and value as a food crop were soon noticed by the Portuguese, who lost little time in carrying to the East plant specimens of the promising cassava. It found its way into Africa during the sixteenth century and a little later into India and other parts of Asia. Through the channels of commerce it was soon carried into almost every country where growing conditions were at all favorable. Just when it was introduced into Florida is unknown, though records show it to have been in cultivation there as early as 1860, and in common use as a source of starch during the Civil War.

## CULTURE

As mentioned above, the cassava thrives best in a tropical climate, one which is free from frost at least 11 months of the year, though 8 months of freedom will suffice. This is necessary to permit maturity of the roots, the season for which may be anywhere from between 7 and 9 months for most varieties to as long as 2 years for others. However, the sweet varieties seem to mature more rapidly than the bitter, and have given satisfactory results in Florida and other Gulf States of the United States. Some writers consider the cassava an annual plant in temperate climates and a perennial in the Tropics.

The best soil in which to grow cassava is a light, rich, sandy loam. That this should be underlaid by a hardpan, to prevent too great penetration of the roots and thus permit their easy harvest, many growers consider preferable. Of course, cassava will grow in wet, heavy, or clayey soils, but there will be disadvantages either in digging, in the appearance of the roots, or in their excessive water content. The cassava has practically the same soil requirements as the sweet potato.

Good preparatory crops for cassava are velvet beans or cowpeas, which, when turned under, will furnish the needed nitrogen and lighten the soil. This leaves only potash and phosphoric acid to be supplied in the form of commercial fertilizer. A common mixture for

fertilizer is 200 pounds of kainite (or 50 pounds of potash) and 300 pounds of acid phosphate, less phosphate being used on limestone lands and more on light, sandy soils. From 200 to 400 pounds of this mixture should be applied to an acre. Ground bone may be substituted for acid phosphate. If velvet beans or cowpeas do not precede the planting of cassava, nitrogen may be included in the fertilizer in the form of cottonseed meal at the rate of 200 to 400 pounds per acre. The ground should not be fertilized too heavily. While cassava will seem to thrive readily, especially on virgin soil, continued planting on the same land without fertilizing soon impoverishes the soil.



Courtesy of Revista de Agricultura, Comercio y Trabajo, Habana

#### CASSAVA ROOTS

The commercial value of the plant lies in these roots, which grow radially from the base of the plant near the surface of the ground.

As in the matter of climate, so in rainfall cassava grows under widely divergent conditions. While some varieties make a vigorous growth where the annual rainfall does not exceed 20 inches, others endure as much as 200 inches without injury. Its chief asset in this connection, however, is its ability to subsist over periods of drought.

It is more difficult to determine the exact time for harvesting this crop than is the case with most others. The starch content of the roots and the use to which they will be put are the determining factors. Actual tests from about every tenth hill of every tenth row should be made several times after it is felt that period for digging is close at hand, in order to determine the approximate yield per acre.

When the yield is no longer increasing it is time to harvest the crop. The period of growth may range anywhere from seven months, as with the sweet varieties of Florida, to as long as two years.

The cassava plant is propagated commercially by cuttings. The seed canes should be cut just before planting into pieces 4 to 6 inches long from mature, but not too old, plants. The middle portions are preferred, though the entire cane may be used in case of a shortage of cuttings. Great care should be exercised to insure the use of only live stems, since the greatest loss in yield is that due to planting dead or dying cuttings. They should be cut cleanly so as not to wound the eyes or leave jagged ends which will invite rotting. A very sharp knife, or better still, a wide-toothed saw is best for this purpose.

After the ground has been ploughed and well harrowed, it is furrowed at right angles to make hills about 4 feet apart. This method should produce 2,722 hills to an acre. While some writers advocate dropping the cuttings carelessly and covering them entirely with earth about 4 inches deep, others say that they should be set right side up in either a slanting or a vertical position and covered until only the tip is exposed.

Cassava, which grows very rapidly, needs cultivation only in the early months and then merely to keep down weeds. A shallow cultivator which will not injure the roots of the plant is best; where labor is plentiful and cheap, hoeing may be substituted for one or more ploughings. After the foliage becomes dense enough to shade the entire surface of the ground, weeds will not grow enough to harm the plants and cultivation may be dispensed with.

If the ground in which the crop is grown is light and sandy, the roots may be pulled by hand after all but about a foot of the stem has been cut off. However, a sharp-pointed instrument (in the Philippines a bamboo rod is used), which may be inserted under the root cluster and used as a lever, is often used to insure a more complete harvest and prevent breaking the roots. Where the ground is heavy or damp, it becomes necessary to employ a spade or similar instrument. Digging is the most expensive phase of cassava culture, and experiments are being made to find an implement for ploughing out the roots without injuring them too greatly. The tops have practically no commercial value and are usually left on the ground as humus for future plantings. After harvesting it is advisable to use the roots immediately or, at the latest, within 24 hours, for at the end of that time they begin to deteriorate rapidly. Unwashed roots keep longer than washed ones.

Very often from one-fourth to one-third of the hills are missing at harvest time, and this keeps down the yield. Crops may run anywhere from 2 to 25 tons of roots per acre, but 5 to 6 tons is considered an average yield.

Only two diseases of any consequence are known to attack the cassava, both caused by parasitic fungi. They are the "spot disease," caused by *Cercospora henningsii* Alleschi, appearing late in the season when the leaves are almost mature and doing little harm; and "frenching" or "little plants," caused by the *Glocosporium manihot* Earle, which attacks and kills the growing branches near the end and then works downward. In some cases this is serious; it is combated by planting selected cuttings known to be free from this fungus. O. W. Barrett says that a bud maggot, *Lonchoea chalybea*, is one of the few pests which attack cassava; it is common but not very dangerous in tropical America and can be controlled by hand picking the tender tips of the branches. He mentions a *Sphingid* caterpillar as sometimes being troublesome; again hand picking is recommended. Root rots are rare and leaf blights not common.

#### USES AND PRODUCTS

To millions of people in tropical countries the cassava root is as common in their diet as are potatoes to people of the United States and European countries. If eaten *whole*, fresh roots are used, peeled, and usually cooked or baked. Another and perhaps more widely followed practice is to peel the roots, then grate them into *meal*, and cook by steaming. In cooking care is taken to allow the steam to escape, as with it any poisonous gas from the roots will also pass. Various dishes are prepared by natives of the different tropical countries.

*Starch* is of course by far the most important product made from cassava. The general procedure of its commercial manufacture is as follows: The tubers are first thoroughly washed in a tank or tub of suitable capacity, then removed, cut into pieces about the size of potatoes, and fed into a starch-extracting machine, which at full capacity should take care of about 600 pounds per hour. The machine automatically separates the starch from the pulp, the latter being discharged in front of the machine and the starch conveyed to settling tanks. For a machine of the capacity described above, three 1,600-gallon settling tanks would be required, there being approximately 100 gallons of starch-containing fluid to 100 pounds of roots. It requires from 4 to 6 hours for the starch to settle and separate from the water and from the pulp and peels, which rise to the top. The starch is next dried, in the sun if the quantity is not too great, or by means of mechanical drying equipment in cases of large-scale production.

In addition to the whole root, cassava meal, and starch, the following products may be listed:

*Tapioca flour* is the product resulting from the heating of moist cassava starch or flour on iron plates, whereby the granules are rup-

tured and when cooled formed into hard and translucent pellets. If rather large and flat they are called *flakes*, and if molded into small pellets they are known as *pearl tapioca*.

*Gaplek*, a Malay word, is used to designate the peeled, sliced, and dried roots of cassava.

*Gaplek meal* is ground gaplek reduced to the consistency of fine corn meal.

*Cassareep* is the liquid squeezed out of cassava meal when heated, and reduced to the consistency of syrup. It is said to be a very powerful antiseptic and is used to keep all kinds of meat fresh for considerable periods. It is also the basis of many well-known sauces, and figures prominently in the West Indian dish called "pepper pot."

*Piwarri* is an intoxicating drink said by Nichols to be made from the cassava root by natives of Guiana.

*Suman* is the name given to cookies made by the Filipinos from fresh cassava meal.

*Bagasse* is the fibrous waste left after most of the starch has been extracted from the roots. Its food value for livestock is rather low, though it may be mixed with other feeds to advantage. The finer waste is called *ampas*, and corresponds to bran in the manufacture of wheat flour.

In closing the remarks on cassava as a food source mention should be made of its use as livestock feed. Probably 95 per cent of the crop grown in the United States goes for this purpose, the roots being eaten eagerly by hogs, cattle, horses, and poultry. Since it is a heavy-yielding crop, its advantages over other tuberous crops are apparent. It is often fed in combination with bran, cottonseed meal, or some other nitrogenous grain feed. As a feed for milk cows it is at least equal to ensilage, but it is especially valuable for fattening beef cattle and hogs. When fed to growing livestock it should be mixed with grain, but as a quick fattener it is equal to, if not better than, corn and may be fed by itself. One grower at Wortham, Miss., considered 1 acre of cassava to be worth as much as 8 to 10 acres of corn for fattening hogs.

In addition to its uses as food, cassava is the source of numerous products well known in the industrial field. The starch made from cassava constitutes a large part of that employed in laundries, and for this purpose is considered superior to starch made from either potatoes or corn. A former important use was for sizing in cotton-textile mills, though now it is seldom used for this purpose in the United States because it commands a better price elsewhere. From it, too, are made many glues and pastes; about 30 per cent of the tapioca imported into the United States is now made into wood glue, which is highly prized by furniture manufacturers for veneering. It also figures in the manufacture of explosives, adhesive for stamps

and envelopes, and paper sizings. In the Philippines even the pith of the stalk is utilized; this is cut into strips and strung into curtains, which, when dyed, are highly ornamental.

#### IMPORTANCE TO THE UNITED STATES

While cassava has been grown in Florida and a few other Southern States of the United States at least since the time of the Civil War, not until about 1894 was its growth stimulated. The freezes of that winter destroyed a large part of the orange groves of Florida, and the farmers turned to livestock. Since theirs was not a grain-growing

#### A CASSAVA PLANT

This 20-year-old specimen of a Brazilian variety, in the patio of the Pan American Union, has reached a growth of 11 feet.



State and there was need for a cheap and prolific feedstuff, the farmers of Florida adopted cassava for this purpose. Soon fields of from 5 to 10 acres became common in many parts of the State, while by 1903-4 fields of from 50 to 100 acres each were to be found in the vicinity of cassava starch factories, of which the first in the United States, if not in the world, was that at De Land, Fla., in 1898. Another followed at Lake Mary in 1899, but the cassava starch industry in the United States never flourished and finally died out about 10 years later. Since that time the only use to which domestic-grown cassava has been put is that of feed for livestock. It is probable that the new

and small cassava starch factories found competition with the larger more firmly established starch industry too keen.

However, while cassava is not grown to any considerable extent in the United States, this country is the world's largest consumer of cassava products. Imports have averaged 140,000,000 pounds annually for the past five or six years, 1929 being the peak year with over 181,000,000 pounds. The average value of these imports is in excess of \$3,000,000.

The following table<sup>1</sup> shows the imports into the United States of cassava products and other farinaceous substances from 1926 to 1930. Imports listed as coming from European countries are evidently transshipments from the Far East.

*United States imports of farinaceous substances (cassava, tapioca, arrowroot, and sago)*

[Quantities in thousands of pounds; value in thousands of dollars]

Country of origin	1926		1927		1928		1929		1930	
	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value	Quantity	Value
Netherland East Indies.....	98,514	2,988	105,977	3,047	166,405	3,655	171,250	4,448	105,639	3,154
British Malaya.....	7,119	204	7,862	226	6,744	178	7,291	172	6,227	132
Hong Kong.....	454	21	731	30	675	25	530	23	804	28
Japan.....	24	1	61	3	84	3	12	1	27	1
Netherlands.....	126	4	(1)	6	793	13	1,014	27	57	2
United Kingdom.....	671	22	283	17	265	10	782	24	982	32
Cuba.....	59	1	15	(1)	125	2	357	5	274	4
Other countries.....	2,516	91	1,356	48	1,378	29	205	11	426	17
Total.....	109,483	3,332	116,291	3,371	176,469	3,915	181,441	4,711	114,436	3,370

<sup>1</sup> Less than \$500.

The imports of farinaceous substances into the United States<sup>1</sup>, according to different classes of material imported, follow:

*Imports of farinaceous substances into the United States, by classes, for consumption*

[Pounds]

Class	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930
Sago crude.....	280,940	249,669	557,771	99,221	102,070
Sago flour.....	5,239,769	5,614,556	4,752,920	7,973,182	5,108,358
Tapioca.....	21,623,547	31,638,288	13,033,226	5,926,852	5,475,845
Tapioca flour.....	82,241,611	78,723,558	128,521,498	159,574,088	100,935,371
Cassava.....	73,262	46,566	29,676,165	7,816,564	2,428,355
Arrowroot.....	23,743	18,258	13,780	53,721	2,670
Arrowroot starch.....	(a)	(a)	(a)	978,707	988,158
Total.....	109,482,872	116,290,895	176,555,360	182,422,335	115,040,827

<sup>a</sup> Included in "Other starches" prior to 1929.

<sup>1</sup> *Commerce Reports*, Sept. 7, 1931.



In 1931 imports of cassava products into the United States were as follows: Tapioca (crude) and cassava, 2,241,526 pounds, valued at \$21,180; tapioca, ground or prepared, 140,953,300 pounds, valued at \$3,012,608; total, 143,194,826 pounds, valued at \$3,033,788.

#### IMPORTANCE TO LATIN AMERICA

We have already spoken of the tremendous importance of the whole or semiprepared roots of the cassava in the daily diet of millions of persons in Latin America. This plant, indigenous to tropical Latin America, will grow well in every country of that region, though in only one or two have steps been taken to exploit it to any considerable extent, notably in Brazil and Cuba. In the latter, according to the statistics of 1928, there are about 60,000 acres devoted to the cultivation of cassava, with only something like \$4,000 worth of exports, these going to the United States. In Brazil the production of cassava in 1928 amounted to 754,459 metric tons, with the States of Bahia, Rio Grande do Sul, and Ceará leading in the order named. It is grown in every State of Brazil, however. Practically all of the Brazilian crop is consumed at home and therefore can not be much of a factor in world trade. Exports from Brazil amounted to 5,022 tons in 1926; 4,817 tons in 1927; 4,657 tons in 1928; 5,774 tons in 1929; and 5,998 tons in 1930. Almost all of Brazil's exports go to Argentina, Chile, and Portugal, none going to the United States.

Recent developments in these and other tropical countries of Latin America indicate that more attention will be paid from now on to the growth and utilization of cassava, particularly as a source of flour for bread making. Nearly every one of these countries is now an importer of wheat or wheat flour, and it is in an attempt to avoid entire dependence on this essentially temperate zone grain that cassava flour is being brought to the fore.

On January 2, 1931, a law was promulgated in Cuba, to take effect July 2, 1932, providing that from the latter date henceforward all bread and allied foodstuffs made and sold in Cuba must contain not less than 10 per cent nor more than 40 per cent of cassava flour. One may easily judge the national interest in cassava when the content of such a common daily article of food as bread is made the subject of national legislation.

On June 17, 1932, according to a dispatch published in the *New York Times* of July 10, a law was passed in Costa Rica, to become effective one year later and to remain in force five years, which provided that bread must contain at least 10 per cent of cassava flour during the first two years and at least 20 per cent during the last three years. It is quite possible that other countries will follow the lead of Cuba and Costa Rica in this action.

Recently a large American company purchased in the Dominican Republic about 8,000 acres of land, on about half of which cassava is under cultivation. It has an experimental factory for extracting tapioca from the roots and is shipping finished tapioca flour to the United States on a small scale. The company states that it intends to increase its facilities for the production of tapioca flour in Santo Domingo when the results of the experimental plant have proved the proper type of factory construction and equipment for the most economical production. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce has received samples of tapioca flour from a Cuban concern which proposes to begin manufacture on a commercial scale with a view of exporting to the United States.

By means of correspondence and agricultural publications which reach the Pan American Union, we find that interest in cassava is growing also in Colombia, Venezuela, Guatemala, Paraguay, and other countries of Latin America in addition to those named above. In Colombia, for instance, the Department of Agriculture has made some rather extensive studies on its growth and chemical composition. It is the plan of these countries to develop interest in cassava as a source of domestic food, and eventually to bring it to the point where it may become an export product.

#### WORLD COMMERCE

Java is by far the leading producer of cassava products, and from it and Madura come about 90 per cent of all tapioca exported in the world. Production in these two Dutch East Indian islands for the four years 1926-1929 was as follows: 1926, 11,871,000,000 pounds; 1927, 14,285,000,000 pounds; 1928, 13,583,000,000 pounds; and 1929, 11,417,000,000 pounds. Approximately 2,000,000 acres there are devoted annually to the production of cassava. In 1929 Java exported a total of 270,274 metric tons of tapioca products, worth \$8,418,982, to all countries; the following year these figures had dropped to 135,035 metric tons and \$5,552,900, respectively. The products shipped were: Dried tapioca roots (gapek), cassava meal, tapioca flour, tapioca flakes, pearl tapioca, and waste.

In addition to Latin America, Java, and Madura, cassava growing is important in Jamaica, Mozambique, Madagascar, Reunion, Malacca, the Philippines, and other countries in the tropical belt. In only a few, however, does production for export purposes occur.

# THE GUATEMALAN INDIANS

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AT first sight, the Guatemalan Indians are just merely picturesque people, who adorn the landscape with their colorful clothes; a cross between beasts of burden and handy persons to have around on a plantation or on moving day; primitive individuals, who seemingly are quite content with their lot. It is enough for an Indian to have a small thatched hut and a diminutive patch of ground on which to plant sufficient corn for the needs of his immediate family; three meals a day with a monotonous menu of tortillas (corn paste cakes), frijoles (black beans), and coffee of a very indifferent quality; and a few chickens and a pig, which nine times out of ten looks anæmic and long-suffering. One suit of clothes is the rule, but it must conform in every detail of cut and color combination to the rules prescribed for those worn by all his tribe. He must have a little money, enough with which to buy "white eye" on Sundays and fiestas.

On closer acquaintance, the Indian is a much more interesting individual, with a personality all his own and traditions which still retain a strong flavor of those in vogue centuries ago among his ancestors.

Properly to understand the modern Indian, it is necessary to have a background of his history. This is furnished by various periods of historical events. Taken as a whole, the Indians form the first great period of Guatemalan history. No other country has more well-defined periods in its historical development than Guatemala; the first period begins in the Dark Ages and ends with the arrival of the Spaniards; the second covers all the colonial period, in which the Spaniards made efforts to conquer and christianize the Indians, ending with the Declaration of Independence from Spain in 1821; then comes the modern or last period, which covers the events during the Republican régime up to the present time. The last period has witnessed the development of the Republic, which has taken its place among the civilized countries of the world and asserted itself as a distinct personality among its sister republics of Central America.

## THE MAYAS

In the humid lowlands of what is now Guatemala, Honduras, and Yucatan (Mexico), there flourished a civilization which can be compared to no other before or after. During the years preceding

and following the beginning of the Christian era, until the opening of the seventh century, thousands of Maya Indians lived in enormous stone cities, the ruins of which still bear evidence of the high degree of civilization which these people had attained.

During this period, the Mayas developed and lived in what are called the Old Empire sites, including Copan, Quirigua, Tikal, Palenque, Piedras Negras, and Naranjo, to mention only a few of the many which flourished during that time.

After they had reached tremendous heights in their artistic and scientific development, for some as yet undiscovered reason the Mayas abandoned these cities. It may have been that the soil was exhausted, or that earthquakes occurred; perhaps epidemics or great wars drove the people away, letting the forests again cover the enormous temples, palaces and other stone buildings. The beautifully carved stelae and carvings in high and low relief on all the buildings could only have been made by a people of artistic temperament. The well-developed system of hieroglyphic writing and counting was amazing. What has been learned of their civil and religious life is also wonderful, especially for a people living in that day and age. As I have stood before the enormous carved stones in Copan and Quirigua, it was hard to realize that the labor involved had been executed solely with stone implements, with no beasts of burden to help transport the huge blocks of stone to the places where they were left at the exodus of the Indians.

The New Empire of the Mayas attained its greatest glory in the peninsula of Yucatan, where Chichen Itza, Uxmal, and Mayapan formed what is called "the League of Mayapan." During this period, which ended about the thirteenth century, great cities were erected and Maya civilization flourished and reached great heights in every branch of the arts.

Between the arrival in Yucatan of the Maya people from the south in the tenth century and the time when they abandoned their Old Empire sites, they seem to have built a few smaller places en route, but none of consequence or to be compared to the great Old Empire sites or the New Empire sites in Yucatan.

The ruins of the New Empire sites show these places to have been simply stupendous; highly developed architectural knowledge conceived the enormous buildings which in the last few years have been uncovered and partly restored.

Once again, some unknown reason forced the Mayas to abandon their cities, and this time they scattered to the south, but made no further attempt to form nations and build cities as their ancestors had. It may safely be said that with the breaking up of the League of Mayapan about a century before the Spaniards arrived, the history of the Mayas ended. After this, outside forces, especially Mexican,

influenced these people, and the pure Maya civilization ended for all time.

But there is still another part of the history of their ancestors which we must take into account, the story of the Indians whom the Spanish *conquistadores* found in Guatemala in the early part of the sixteenth century.

Utatlan, Iximche, Tzaculheu, and Tecpan-Atitlan were all flourishing cities at the beginning of the sixteenth century, strongholds wherein lived thousands of Indians, with a well-regulated civil and religious life; the inhabitants preserved very little of the artistic



MONOLITH FROM TECPAN, GUATEMALA

This gigantic carved stone discovered near Tecpan, one of the centers of the Cakchiquel Indians, has been removed to Aurora Park in Guatemala City as a monument to an early civilization.

development of their ancestors, the Mayas, although they had a calendar of their own and a literature which expressed their thoughts. They had palaces, temples, and fortifications against the enemy; outside these cities as many more people lived in thatched huts, exactly as the present-day Indians do. Their artistic abilities were expressed in gold and silver work, in feather and cotton embroideries on their clothes, in music and in dancing; architecture, however, was much neglected. Warfare occupied much of their time. The Spaniards found many parts of the country at odds with each other, a fact which facilitated in no small degree the conquest by the Spaniards.

It was hard for the *conquistadores* to judge the degree of civilization the Indians had attained, for according to European standards they were a barbarous people of no intellectual attainments at all. It is not surprising that most of the old chronicles give the impression that the Indians were savages, an absolutely primitive people—which was not the case at all. The few records that survived the wholesale burning and destruction of Indian books prove that the Indians were far from savagery at that time.

Soon after the Spaniards arrived, the Indian civilization underwent further transformations; Spanish traditions and customs mingled with Indian ones, forming a strange mixture. To this was also added the influence of the Mexican Indians who followed the *conquistadores* into Guatemala.

During this second period of Guatemalan history the Indians lost much of their individuality. Pressure was brought to bear on them to conform to the customs and religion of the invaders. Very soon villages and towns were founded by the Spaniards; the outstanding feature in each one was the large church built on Spanish architectural lines. Around it were grouped houses, like those of the smaller Spanish villages; around the houses the thatched huts of the Indians were placed. This same arrangement may still be seen in every valley and mountain nook in the country; the last four centuries have hardly changed the aspect of these villages. The church forms the center of the village life, and in the open square in front of it all the religious and civil festivals take place. By the end of the colonial era, the Indian, though retaining his Indian way of living, had become a strange mixture. Many had a strong strain of white blood; these were called *Ladinos*. In the last century their number reached large proportions, especially in some of the southeastern portions of the country, where the real Indian has completely disappeared.

During the last hundred years traditions and old customs have continued, perhaps more openly than in the three centuries immediately preceding. A semblance of old lore can still be found, a most interesting sort of mongrel civilization; it is a queer mixture of foreign influences made by the Indian mind into something completely new. This is what is mistaken by so many as true Indian lore, coming directly from the Mayas, but a good three-quarters of it is outside influences—not necessarily pure Spanish, but also Aztec, Nahuatl, and Mexican, likewise African, and nowadays in some places, German—with a strong Indian flavor.

#### TRIBES

The Guatemalan Indians are not all of the same stock. In Guatemala to-day there are 21 different groups, more or less, speaking different languages, none of which can be understood outside its respec-

tive territory. Most of these groups belong to the large Maya-Quiché family, but they separated from the parent stock so long ago that they developed quite different languages, as well as diverse habits and even physical characteristics. Therefore they may really be called different groups, tribes, or races. The different bloods mixed with the parent strain in smaller or larger proportions make these differences very marked.

To the Quiché tribe, whose ancestors were living in the fortified city of Utatlan in 1524, when the Spaniards destroyed this last Indian stronghold, now belong such important centers as Santo Tomas Chichicastenango, Quezaltenango, Totonicapan, and Momostenango, famed for its lovely woolen blankets. The Quiché Indians are a clean and industrious lot. Their language boasts a literature—among its famous books is the *Popol-Vuh*, or so-called Quiché Bible, a classic which has been translated into all modern languages; it is full of traditions and lore relating to these people, beautifully expressed, and gives an insight into a side of the Indian character which otherwise would be hard to understand. The *Rabinal-Achi* is also written in the Quiché language. This drama, with music for religious dances, is full of Quiché traditions; it was admirably interpreted and translated into Spanish by the Abbé Brasseur de Bourbourg in the latter part of the last century. In addition, there have been found innumerable land grants in the Quiché language, the most important being the titles belonging to the "Señores de Totonicapan."

Next in importance are the Cakchiquel Indians, also of the same parent stock. They live near what is now Guatemala City, and their ancestors occupied the stronghold of Iximche when the Spaniards arrived. They also have an important literature; *Los Anales de los Cakchiqueles* has been translated into other languages and studied by students interested in Indian lore. The Cakchiquel Indians live in and around such centers as Tecpan, Solola, and Antigua.

Around Lake Atitlan the inhabitants of the various villages which cling precariously to the cliffs on the shores of the lake belong to three distinct tribes. Some are Quichés, others Cakchiqueles, but the greater part belong to the Tzutuhil tribe, also of the Maya-Quiché group and related to the above, even though their physical appearance differs greatly. They are good fishermen, their canoes being quite distinctive, built in a style not to be found anywhere else in the country. They had a stronghold called Tecpan-Atitlan from which they defended their homes against the Spaniards, but they were defeated like all the rest of their neighbors.

The Mam Indians were living in and around the great fort of Tzaculheu when the invaders arrived; they also tried to resist their enemies, but were overcome. The descendants of this race still live in the vicinity of the old city, now in ruins, and also in Huehuetenango.

They are very stolid looking, mingle seldom with outsiders and have kept up their traditions faithfully.

The Ketchi Indians live nowadays in and around what is called Alta Verapaz; they are fine specimens of human beings. A strong strain of German blood is found in these Indians, but they still retain their Indian habits and clothes, which make a startling combination with their blue eyes and fair hair.

The Chuj Indians are small in stature and have the true Indian physique. Their traditions and mode of living are also akin to those



INDIAN WEAVERS

A woman weaver, using a small hand loom, is pictured by the Guatemalan artist, Humberto Garavito, in this canvas which was included in the Pan American Exhibit of Paintings in Baltimore in 1931.

of their forefathers; they seldom speak even the Spanish required for trading in the larger cities. This fact is also true of the Indians belonging to the Ixil tribes, or what are commonly known as the *Pueblos de la Sierra* (people living in the high mountains of the Cuchumatanes in villages like Nebaj, Chajul and Cotzal). Their queer clothes, stolid expressions, small bodies, and very dark complexions distinguish them from members of any other tribe.

The Pocomán Indians are quite different; they are much more easily approached—perhaps living near more accessible places has



brought this about, perhaps because they are related to the ancient Mexicans. The best examples of the Pocomán tribe are to be found in San Martín Jilotepeque and in the little village of Mixco.

In the vast wilderness of Peten in the north of Guatemala, the Mopán Indians are found, also scattered groups of the Lacandón Indians, reputed to be fierce and warlike. Peten was the territory occupied by the Mayas after leaving Yucatan, and it is there that some of their true descendants may be encountered.

To the above list of tribes many more might still be added, such as the Chol and Chorti Indians, all belonging to the same parent Maya-Quiché group. None of these peoples understand or are interested in one another; in fact they avoid each other to such an extent that young people are absolutely forbidden to marry outside their own tribe. Should this happen, however, as it does in these modern times, the one punished is always the girl, who leaves her people, and adopts the clothes and customs of the tribe into which she has married.

Besides the afore-mentioned tribes, we have the Pipil Indians, who are a distinct Mexican tribe; their name, meaning youth, evidently originated from their appearance. They live scattered throughout the country, but principally near Escuintla and in the vicinity of Lake Amatitlan, Zacapa and Salama. They migrated to Guatemala in pre-Columbian times.

The only tribe which, with its language, is considered autochthonous is the Sinca, whose descendants live along the Pacific coast.

The Guatemalan Indian tribes form a true Tower of Babel, but some of the languages are fast disappearing.

In every village there is always a native *alcalde*, or official, chosen by the Indians, as well as one named by the Central Government in Guatemala City. The *alcalde* chosen by the people has often several Indian *regidores* to help him maintain his dignity. He is the go-between and interpreter, the one who settles all affairs and disputes amongst his people, and takes long journeys into the capital city to confer with the President on any important questions which may arise, usually land disputes with the *Ladinos*.

#### CLOTHES

Each tribe wears its own distinctive costume, no two being alike; even in small and seemingly insignificant details they vary according to the tribe. One recognizes an Indian's origin by his garb. Formerly only the priests and high officials in the large centers had embroidered clothes; the Indians in the mountains wore only loin cloths, and a *tzute*, or large handkerchief, to keep the sun off their shoulders. Now all Indians wear brightly embroidered costumes. The men's is a mixture, resulting from Spanish influences and true

Indian ideas. This is usually the so-called *Capishay*, from the *Capa y Saya* (cape and skirt) of the Spaniards; it is a most useful garment of dark wool, which protects the wearer from the rain and keeps him warm in the colder mountain regions.

A woman wears a *huipil*, or blouse, on which she puts a great deal of work, with a skirt which is either tightly wound around the hips, making her trot along instead of walk, or loosely pleated around the waist. The skirt, held up by a richly-embroidered belt, may vary in length, some women wearing it down to the ankles, others up to the knees, all depending on where they live and whether much climbing has to be done. Some use a shawl over the head, others just a strip of cloth in the tribal colors, while still others wear beautiful hair ribbons, or simply adorn their hair with varicolored wool.

Red is a favorite color, especially among the men; red jackets gaily embroidered, red head cloths, red shirts with the tribal design on them, all help to make the men look very distinctive.

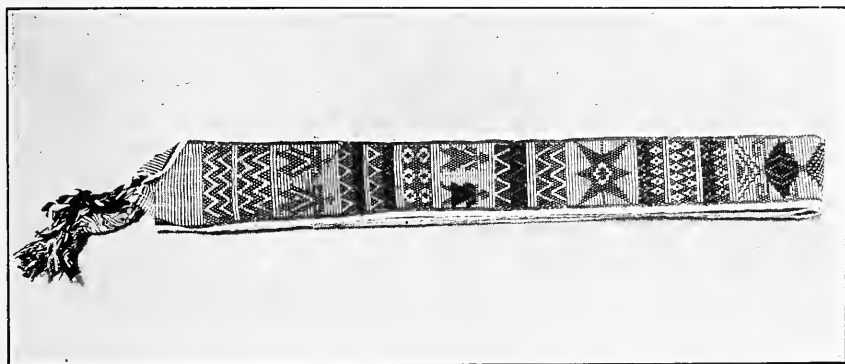
Every village weaves its own clothes; small hand looms can be seen in almost every hut, the women being the ones who do the work—very seldom do the men take part. The clothes are for the most part made out of cotton in the two natural colors produced in the country, white and brown (*cuyuscate*). The patterns are either embroidered after the cloth is woven, or put in while the weaving is in process. For coloring, natural vegetable dyes are used, although nowadays many employ aniline dyes bought in the city.

Silk is now used only for festive garments, wool being preferred as it helps the wearer to keep warm, especially in the highlands where frost can be found on the ground every morning. The woolen hand-woven blankets are delightful, being waterproof and almost everlasting.

The different designs on the clothes are symbolic, but the true meaning of the symbols has generally been forgotten, except where a soothsayer or high official still has an inkling of their meaning. Nevertheless the tribal design is strictly adhered to by all; even small children wear clothes identical with those of their parents. The symbol is carried out in every article of wearing apparel and is never copied by a neighboring tribe. The Indians are clever in combining all sorts of colors and in making different kinds of stitches. The "tied and dyed" method of coloring cotton is very frequently used for their skirts; the more "*jaspes*," as the knots are called, the more valuable the piece is. The coin necklaces, which are much worn, are beautiful and very expensive. They are seldom for sale, even though the wearer is in need of money; the coins are mostly old Spanish silver. In one village, Sacapulas, the women wear a breast piece made of old Peruvian coins surrounded with minute silver symbolic figures.

The "pieces of eight," and other old coins, some of them many sided, are favorites for these *chachales*, or coin necklaces. The former were the first ones coined in Guatemala when the Spaniards established the mint in Central America, and the Indians have a superstition that they bring good luck, but only when they are acquired as a gift, never when bought. Some Indians who are fortunate or rich enough still have these *macacos*, as they are called, in gold.

The men for the most part wear palm-leaf hats, weaving them themselves, into different shapes. It is quite amusing to watch a row of Indians walking along the street, each busily making a hat for himself. The Nahualá Indians have hats made out of black beeswax and shaped exactly like a derby.



AN EMBROIDERED BELT

Tribal designs are closely adhered to in various articles of clothing made by the Indians. The heavily embroidered belts resemble tapestry.

Primitive wheels, spindles, looms, and methods for dyeing are still used all over the country, just as they were several centuries ago by the ancestors of the present Indians. The finished product is always a thing of beauty, whether plain or symbolic. Some of the more complicated *huipiles* take six months to weave and are worn as long as they last, often being patched until little of the original piece remains. When an Indian woman is working, she generally turns her *huipil* inside out to save wear and tear on it.

Marriage veils and ceremonial costumes are things of beauty although queerly shaped, and show a very strong Spanish influence, in both cut and design. The trousers and coats usual among the men have a foreign cut, but are most amusingly worn, so that they look quite original and not like imported fashions. Individuality is the key-note to the whole subject of Indian clothes, which, sad to say, are disappearing rapidly, the *Ladino* clothes taking the place of

the colorful and picturesque costumes which make their wearers look like bright birds along the highways of the country.

#### LIFE AMONG THE INDIANS

The Indians are more inclined to agriculture than to any other occupation; to them the various seasons of the year are of utmost importance, especially the beginning of the rainy season. Since corn, their principal food, plays such an important part in their lives, it is not to be wondered at that the time for planting the corn is made the occasion for special celebrations. Even though Indians are working far away from home on plantations, nothing can keep them from going home to plant their own little patch of corn. Every village has a special ceremony for corn-planting time, the corn being blessed by the village priest.

In some places the different kinds of corn (yellow, black, and white), which have been stored from the previous year, are taken out and put in the church, which is decorated with flowers, pine needles, and candles. Each family worships around its own corn, while the priest celebrates mass and blesses the grain. In other places the corn is taken out to the fields, three small pine trees planted, and a picture of San Isidro, the patron saint of planters, hung on the middle tree. The trees are then decorated with fruit, and under them the corn is placed according to its size, candles are lighted and incense (*copal*) is burned underneath, while the relatives and friends pray that the crop will be a good one and that there will be sufficient rain throughout the season. In still other villages large candles are placed at the four corners of the field and many prayers are offered before the corn is planted. When the corn is ripe, all the relatives and friends are obliged to help the owner gather his crop, after which there is another celebration with music and of course much "white-eye."

It is interesting to watch Indians returning to their home villages for the great fiesta of their patron saint. They bring with them all sorts of goods to trade at the fair held in front of the church, where a regular nomad village springs up overnight. The priest baptizes wholesale on the day of the fiesta, the children one and all receiving the saint's name.

Marriage is quite another affair; the witch-doctor plays an important part in that ceremony, either at the house where the wedding feast is in progress, or later in the woods where he has his stand. He is an important personage, nothing ever taking place without his first being consulted. If a youth wants to marry, the witch-doctor is consulted; if the verdict is given that the girl chosen is too frail for work, the young man is urged to look around for another one who will not be an expense to him through illness. Many ceremonies are gone

through before a wedding takes place; usually the girl has little to say on the subject, the parents doing the bargaining; very strict rules govern the chastity of a maiden. The Indians are a moral lot; only after mixing with outsiders do they noticeably relax from their strict codes.

For example, in some places it is obligatory for the murderer of a husband or father to sustain the family of the man he has killed until such time as the youngest child is old enough to work, or the youngest daughter married and provision made for the support of the widow. In another place no man or woman outside the tribe is allowed to pass the night within the limits of the village. Some villages prohibit drinking to the state of intoxication, and anybody so inclined must



Courtesy of Lilly de Jongh Osborne

GUATEMALAN INDIANS SELLING CARVED GOURDS IN THE MARKET

leave his village and not return until completely sober; in others a girl must give proof of her ability to cook and weave before she is allowed to marry, and while her wedding guests wait, she must grind corn and prepare food for them, which must be exactly to their taste. Otherwise they are allowed to chastise her as they leave.

Whenever Indians reach the top of a high mountain, they simultaneously take off their hats, and deposit floral offerings on a stone altar to the Spirit of the Mountain. Upon reaching a clear brook they will leave stones on which they have placed flowers and pine needles; at a hot spring, however, they leave a bundle of sticks tied together.

Indian fiestas are celebrated in a primitive way, music being played on the Indian instruments, the *Marimba*, *Tun*, and *Chirimía*, which

make day and night horrible with their sounds. Symbolic dances, the participants in which wear masks, take place to the different tunes. These dances, mostly of Spanish origin but with a sprinkling of Indian influence, are performed only on special occasions. The *Torito* and the *Moros* are of distinct Spanish flavor, while the *Gracejo* is purely Indian.

Every village has some specialty by which it distinguishes itself, splendid hand-woven textiles, which the inhabitants trade in other markets in Guatemala or even in other countries: woven mats, called *tules*, made of swamp reeds; string bags of very special design and kind; woolen blankets; embroidered huipiles which the natives trade outside their own territory; pottery in various shapes and sizes; glazed ware famous for its resistance to both heat and cold; water jugs of splendid proportions; or gourds beautifully carved. To obtain a special article made in far off villages, people will wait a whole year for its annual fair. Traders peddle their wares in the different villages on market days, regular routes existing along the mountain. The goods are carried on the Indian's back, suspended by a tumpline across his forehead; if he is wealthy, however, the load will be carried by a mule or a decrepit horse, while his wife and small children trail along on foot.

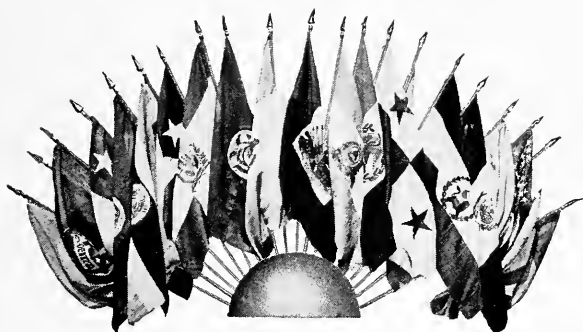
The descendant of a tribe or race which originally came from Mexico will wait until the dry season, when the roads are passable and traders from Mexico come into the town with their wares, to obtain his particular and distinctive belt and thus be able to show clearly his descent.

But now strange customs are fast dying out and taking with them much of the beauty and picturesque atmosphere which gives Guatemala such an exotic flavor of its own.



Courtesy of Lilly de Jongh Osborne

AN INDIAN CANOE ON LAKE ATITLAN, GUATEMALA



## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Special library science collection.*—During the past month the library has added three titles to its special collection of over 40 books on library science in languages other than English. The new acquisitions include *Norme per il catalogo degli stampati*, published by the Vatican Library in Vatican City; *Catalogación y ordenación de Bibliotecas—Instrucciones elementales*, por Jorge Rubió, Barcelona, Taber; and *Como se forma una biblioteca*, por Federico Carlos Sainz de Robles, Valencia, Cuadernos de Cultura, No. 12. The Vatican code of cataloguing rules comprises 400 pages; although it is apparently based on those of the American Library Association, it is a larger publication. It is a work that should prove most useful to librarians in the countries south of the Rio Grande. The book by Rubió, in spite of the fact that it contains only 49 pages, includes very useful instruction for library workers and is illustrated with color plates and drawings of library equipment.

*Dr. Harvey Bassler.*—A recent visitor to the library was Dr. Harvey Bassler, who has spent many years in the region of the upper Amazon. For the past 10 years he has been especially interested in geological exploration on the eastern slope of the Ecuadorean and Peruvian Andes. During this period he acquired an unusually large library on Latin America—reported to contain more than 60,000 volumes—which contains one of the outstanding collections of Pan Americana. Doctor Bassler created *The Harvey Bassler Foundation*, which published in 1931 *A survey of Mexican scientific periodicals*, by Anita Melville Ker.

*Notes from Mexico.*—In the supplement of *El Libro y El Pueblo*, Mexico, May, 1932, appears an interesting list of 138 children's books in Spanish. It was prepared by Miss Juana Manrique de

Lara, a former student at a United States library school. The works cited include translations from English and French and many by Mexican authors.

The same issue also contains the text of new library regulations issued for the guidance of public libraries in Mexico by the Bureau of Libraries of the Department of Public Education. The rules include special arrangements for home lending.

*Recent acquisitions.*—Books of special interest received during the past month include the following:

*Obras de Juan de Castellanos.* Edición de Parra León Hermanos en homenaje al Libertador Simón Bolívar con motivo del centésimo aniversario de su muerte. Prólogo del doctor Caracciolo Parra . . . Tomo 2. Caracas, Parra León Hermanos, 1932. 559 p. 4°.

*Memoria de la cuestion de límites entre México y Guatemala* y de los trabajos ejecutados en la frontera de ambos países por la comisión mexicana de reconocimiento de dicha frontera primero, y después por la comisión mexicana de límites para el trazo de la línea divisoria entre ambas repúblicas. Por el ingeniero Alberto Amador. Tomo 1. México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, 1931. 683 p. illus. maps. 4°.

*La iniciación de la república.* Contribución al estudio de la evolución política y social del Perú. [Por] Jorge Basadre. Tomo 1-2. Lima, Librería Francesa Científica y Casa editorial Rosay, 1929-30. 8°. 2 vols.

*Cubagua.* [Por] Enrique Bernardo Núñez. Paris, Editorial "Le Livre Libre," 1931. 138 p. 8°.

*Hostos: ciudadano de América.* [Por] Antonio S. Pedreira. Madrid, Talleres de Espasa-Calpe, S. A., 1932. 264 p. 8°.

*José Antonio Saco fué en caracter.* [Por] Federico Cordova. Habana, Tipografía Molina y cía., 1931. 80 p. 8°.

*Encuadraciones artísticas mexicanas, siglos XVI al XIX.* [Por] Manuel Romero de Terreros. Monografías bibliográficas mexicanas número 24. México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, 1932. xxvii, 25 p. 48 plates. 8°.

*El Ecuador en cien años de independencia 1830-1930.* Tomo 1-2. [Por] J. Gonzalo Orellana. Quito, Escuela Tipográfica Salesiana, 1930. 4°. 2 vols.

*Inter-American congress of rectors, deans, and educators in general, Habana, Cuba, February 20-23, 1930.* Report of the chairman of the delegation of the United States of America. Washington, Govt. print. office, 1931. 136 p. 8°. (Publications of the Department of State, conference series, No. 8.)

*Equivocaciones: ensayos sobre literatura penúltima.* [Por] Jorge Basadre. Lima, Casa editora "La Opinión Nacional," 1928. 56 p. 8°.

*Se han sublevado los Indios.* . . [Por] Luis Alberto Sánchez. Lima, Casa editora "La Opinión Nacional," 1928. 69 p. 8°.

*La multitud, la ciudad y el campo en la historia del Perú.* [Por] Jorge Basadre. Lima, Imprenta A. J. Rivas Berrio, 1929. 234 p. 4°.

*Los gobernadores de Guayaquil del siglo XVIII.* (Notas para la historia de la ciudad durante los años de 1763 a 1803.) [Por] Abel-Romeo Castillo. Madrid, Imprenta de Galo Sáez, 1931. 397 p. 4°.

*Derecho internacional público.* (Curso universitario.) Por Alberto Ulloa . . . Tomo 1-2. Lima, Impresores Sanmartí y cía., 1926-1929. 8°. 2 vols.

*El fallo arbitral del presidente de Estados Unidos de América en la cuestión de Tacna y Arica.* Por Alberto Ulloa. . . Lima, Imp. Seminario y cía., 1925. 110 p. 8°.



*Escola moderna: conceitos e praticas.* [Por] Maria dos Reis Campos. Rio de Janeiro, Est. Graphico Fernandes & Rohe, 1932. 284 p. 12°.

New magazines and periodicals received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

*Revista Orto.* (Órgano del Grupo Universitario.) Apartado 638, Quito, Ecuador. (Monthly.) Año 1, No. 2 y 3, marzo-abril, 1932. 116 p. 6 by 8½ inches.

*Boletín del Consejo de Salud Pública.* Montevideo, Uruguay. (Monthly.) Año 1, No. 1, enero, febrero, marzo de 1932. 247 p. 6½ by 9½ inches.

*Pan American News.* Bogotá, Colombia. (Weekly.) Year 1, No. 2, July 2, 1932. 4 pages, illus. 10 by 14 inches.

*Gaceta Jurídica Trimestral.* Apartado de Correo No. 58, San Cristóbal, Estado Táchira, Venezuela. Año 1, No. 1, julio-setiembre de 1932. 74 p. 6½ by 9½ inches.

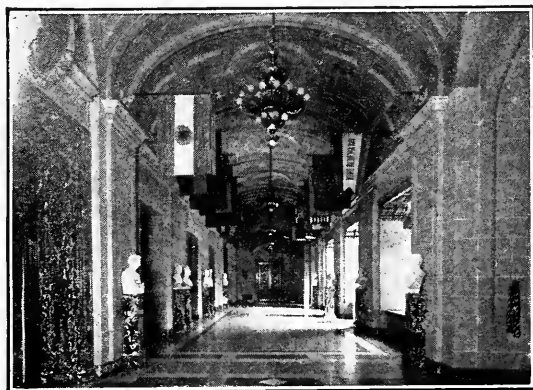
*Index Translationum.* (International Bibliography of Translations.) International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, 2, rue de Montpensier (Palais Royal), Paris, France. [Vol. 1], No. 1, July 1932. 57 p. 8 by 10¾ inches.

*Revista Panameña de Contabilidad.* (Revista publicada por el Instituto Panameño de Contadores.) Apartado 361, Panama, Panama. Vol. 1, No. 1, julio de 1932. 48 p. 6 by 9½ inches.

*Diario de los Debates del Congreso Constituyente de 1931.* Lima, Peru. (Daily.) 18 de abril de 1932. 42 p. 9½ by 12¾ inches.

*Boletim de Educação Publica.* (Publicação trimestral da Directoria Geral de Instrução Publica do Districto Federal.) Rio de Janeiro. (Quarterly.) Anno 1, No. 3, julho-setembro, 1930. 173 p. illus. 6 by 9 inches.

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## PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

### PUBLIC HEALTH AND SOCIAL WELFARE

*Maternity and child welfare work.*—Much interesting and helpful child welfare work is being done in Sao Paulo, BRAZIL, by the Cruzada Pro Infancia, a society which though organized only two years ago, has already initiated a vigorous campaign for the development of normal healthy children.

Many of the activities of the society center around its dispensary, formally opened on May 18, 1931, where prenatal care is given to mothers, milk distributed, general examinations are made, and treatments given. Since February, 1932, the services of an eye, ear, and nose specialist and a dentist have been secured and the work further broadened by the installation of violet-ray treatment apparatus.

Special arrangements have been made by the society with the maternity ward of the medical clinic to have maternity cases coming under the observation of the dispensary cared for there; but when this is not possible, the society sees that the mother is attended by a trained midwife. In cases where she can not bear the full expense of proper care, the society contributes the necessary amount. In connection with this work the society maintains several beds for expectant mothers who need to rest before or immediately following hospitalization. As yet this service is limited, but the society hopes to be able to extend it as time goes on to an increasing number of needy women. Those mothers who can not afford to purchase clothing for their children are given layettes.

Another important phase of the work of the society is its activities in assisting the unemployed. With the cooperation of the Department of Labor, work is often secured; this however, is not always possible and then other aid must be sought. Many times the society enlists the interest of the Vincentinos, a well-organized charity association which will provide rent and provisions until the wage earner can again find work.

Realizing the immense value of furnishing children with adequate playtime in the midst of healthful surroundings, the society has organized special activities at the large central playground. There a health nurse is maintained who supervises the grounds, directs exercises, and gives sun baths and lunches to children needing special attention. At the suggestion of the society, high-school students have taken over the supervision of games and the Society for the

Prevention of Cruelty to Animals has further assisted by teaching the children to plan and tend small gardens in space set aside for that purpose in the playground.

In all its work the society has had the hearty cooperation of the Government, which has contributed the services of two health nurses and a dentist. The physicians connected with the dispensary have given their services free, as have also the girls who keep the records.

Last October the society sponsored a children's week, and plans are already being made for a similar celebration this year. Beginning on October 12, which is officially recognized as Children's Day by the Government, a varied and extremely interesting program was carried out. The second day was devoted to mothers and nursing babies. A matinee was held in a theater in each suburb for mothers, a series of lectures on child care begun, and awards were made to the most healthy children registered at the public health centers.

The following day interest was centered around children in the hospitals, and the lectures dealt with the prevention of certain diseases and the necessity for adequate and timely hospital treatment. Hospitals were visited by different groups, who gave entertainments and carried to each child a new garment, a toy, and a bag of candies and fruit.

On the fourth day children in asylums or institutions were the object of attention. Committees visited every children's home to study conditions there, and make suggestions for its improvement. The children themselves were remembered with garments and toys. A feature of the day was a picnic held in one of the playgrounds for the children of these institutions.

The fifth day was devoted to school children. Appropriate programs were held in the schools and awards made to the students who had done outstanding work. Some of the children took this opportunity to further the activities of the society; money was given by the boys, and tiny garments, their own handiwork, were contributed by the girls.

The sixth day was dedicated to working children. The trade schools were closed for the day and all the students given passes to an industrial exhibit and its amusement features. Even the boys in the reformatory were allowed to participate, and although they were not permitted to leave the grounds of the institution, they were excused from their regular duties to enjoy a program of their own.

In an effort to make its work more effective, the National Bureau of Hygiene and Public Welfare of COLOMBIA has reorganized the section in charge of the national child welfare service. The personnel of the division now includes a physician, two student physicians, seven nurses, a gynecologist, and an eye, ear, and throat specialist.

A maternal hygiene and child nutrition clinic which is expected to play an important rôle in preventing and combating diseases among children of the capital has recently been opened by the Public Health Service of GUATEMALA in its office in Guatemala City. The new clinic is in charge of three specialists in gynecology and pediatrics, a graduate nurse, and an assistant. While established for the purpose of providing treatment for the sick, one of the primary functions of the clinic will also be to teach mothers to find the proper diet for their children. All women who have had any difficulties arising from nutrition problems are being urged to visit the clinic. No charge is made for the service.

Interesting innovations in the usual welfare programs for mothers and children have been made in MEXICO, where a mothers' night school has been opened and a service established for home delivery of the milk prescribed for children treated by specialists in the clinics of the National Child Welfare Association. The latter service was begun last spring when the National Child Welfare Association decided to broaden its work in the capital by preparing the milk and special food prescribed for each child and delivering it to the home under conditions which would insure its freshness. The association was organized in January, 1929, and has now extended to all the States of the Republic its varied activities, which include the maintenance of children's homes, medical centers for mothers and children, clinics, and milk stations; but the plan being tried out in Mexico City is unique.

The night school for mothers was opened in Mexico City on June 13. In contrast to the usual type of educational opportunity offered mothers, which includes simply courses in child care and hygiene, there are classes in typewriting and stenography in addition to the subjects of a purely domestic nature. The supervision and maintenance of the school is in charge of the Government of Federal District.

The provision of special lunches for undernourished children attending the primary school at the Teachers' College in Asuncion was recently begun by the National Red Cross of PARAGUAY. The society has also established a similar service in the maternity clinic and does other important child welfare work through its milk stations and dispensary.

*Social-welfare activities of the Government of El Salvador.*—The official social welfare program of El Salvador is carried on through the Department of Labor and Social Welfare and the Department of Public Health. In general, the Department of Public Health is concerned with the prophylaxis of disease, for which it maintains

vaccination and sanitation services, while the Department of Labor and Social Welfare is engaged in the other phase of the problem—the treatment of disease. This distinction, however, is not applicable to all the activities of either division of the Government; the Department of Public Health is in charge of the children and mothers' clinic in San Salvador, and the Department of Labor and Public Health is directly responsible, among other things, for child-welfare activities which are preventive rather than therapeutic in character and for the maintenance of all national orphanages and homes for the aged.

Much of the work of the Department of Labor and Social Welfare centers around the administration of the national hospitals. These institutions, which number 17 in all, are accustomed to care for more than 28,000 patients yearly. The largest hospital is the Rosales, located in San Salvador. Its regular medical and surgical services total 15, and there are also 4 special services besides the bacteriological laboratory. According to the report submitted to Congress by the Minister of the Department early in 1932, 1,673 operations were performed in the hospital during the preceding year, 16,284 laboratory tests made, and 330,239 prescriptions filled. A total of 355 cases were treated in the section of pathological anatomy and 4,605 in the physiotherapy service. Persons attending the free clinics of the hospital during the year numbered 8,991. Recent improvements to the hospital buildings include the construction of an addition to the emergency ward and a separate division for tuberculosis patients.

The second largest hospital in the Republic is in Santa Ana. A total of 5,789 patients were stated to have been treated in this institution during the year 1931. The extent of its work is indicated by the reports that surgical operations numbered 229, treatments in its physiotherapeutic service 1,546, and tests in the bacteriological laboratory 1,377. Two new floors were added to the building during the year, one to form an extension to the tuberculosis ward and the other for use in the general services. Perhaps the outstanding feature of its work, however, was the establishment of free dental service in charge of a competent dentist.

The other hospitals are located at Chalchuapá, Metapan, Usulután, Sonsonate, Nueva San Salvador, Ahuachapán, San Miguel, Zacatecoluca, San Vicente, Santiago de María, Jucuapa, Suchitoto, Chalatenango, Cojutepeque, and La Unión. These are necessarily smaller but their contribution to the health of the Republic is no less important.

Orphanages are maintained by the Government at San Salvador, Santa Ana, San Miguel, Sonsonate, and Santa Tecla. A total of 884 children were being cared for in these institutions at the close of 1931. Another interesting child-welfare activity is the day nursery attended

by 36,012 small children during the past year. The nursery at Sonsonate, founded as a private charity, passed during October to the direction of the Government and is now functioning as a part of the hospital in that city.

The National Tuberculosis Sanatorium, the Central Insane Asylum, and several other homes complete the list of social-welfare institutions maintained by the Government.

Through the public health service the Government is able to keep an effective control over epidemics of various kinds, improve sanitation, and enforce existing sanitary legislation.

For the purposes of organization the Department of Public Health is divided into five different sections, each of which has its specific duties. To one is assigned the vaccination service, to another the treatment and prophylaxis of hookworm and venereal diseases, to a third the inspection of food products, and to a fourth the engineering service. The fifth section is in charge of legal questions which may come before the department.

As a result of the vigilance of this branch of the Government, the danger of smallpox has been practically eliminated. Vaccination and revaccination are being carried on at all times. During the year 1931, a total of 160,660 persons were vaccinated, 76,488 of this number for the first time. The work, however, is not confined to the prophylaxis of one disease. One hundred twenty-nine persons were treated in the Antirabies Institute, and a school medical service was maintained. This last had charge of the vaccination of school pupils against smallpox and diphtheria, and the inspection of the school buildings.

One of the most important services of the department was its work against hookworm. During the past year the radius of action of the commission in charge of this campaign was extended to include a score of towns in the Departments of Santa Ana, La Libertad, Chalatenango, Cuscatlan, La Paz, Usulután, San Miguel, and La Unión which had never before been reached. The dispensary in San Salvador treated large numbers of people and initiated work in the schools and barracks of the city. During 1931, alone, over 42,000 persons were examined for the disease. The supervision of the construction of latrines was also continued as an integral part of the regular measures taken to combat the disease. Homes are constantly being visited by the health inspectors to investigate conditions and, if necessary, to order adequate sanitary services.

A total of 1,989 men and women were treated in the night clinic in San Salvador during the past year and 5,156 examinations made in the Hospital for the Prophylaxis of Venereal Diseases. Patients treated in the latter numbered 506. The bacteriological laboratory reported having made 14,014 examinations.

Constant vigilance is also kept by the department over the products sold in the markets and stores and the milk and drinking water supply. The section of sanitary engineers passed on 235 building plans during 1931 besides inspecting the construction of sewerage systems and studying the problem of ventilation in the theaters of the capital. The work for the prevention of malaria was largely concerned with the destruction of mosquito breeding places in stagnant pools and along rivers and streams.

The child welfare clinic in San Salvador, which has been open only three years, reported that it attended 425 children and a large number of mothers during 1931. Lectures were given under the auspices of the clinic and free medicines distributed through the courtesy of the public welfare service and several pharmacies in the capital.

# SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

REPORTS RECEIVED TO AUGUST 12, 1932

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Argentina from May 31 to June 13, 1932. (Argentine export trade; Petroleum in San Juan Province; Projected grain alcohol industry; The Chilean cattle duties and the Transandine railway; Argentine-Chilean relations; Argentina and Bolivia, Buenos Aires provincial budget.)	1932 June 17	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Limiting the municipal budget of the Federal District	June 23	Do.
Unofficial translation of the new Argentine sales tax regulations	June 30	Do.
Excerpt from report of general conditions in Argentina from June 14 to 27, 1932. (Washington Bicentenary; Argentine-Japanese Society founded in Tokyo; Visit of Brazilian students to Argentina; State railways receipts; Public works in the Province of Buenos Aires.	July 1	Do.
BRAZIL		
Central purchasing commission	June 22	Embassy, Rio de Janeiro.
COLOMBIA		
Volume 1 of "Compilation of studies, plans and reports," by the council of ways of communication and the railway and river tariff commission.	June 21	Legation, Bogota.
Report of general superintendent of municipal public utilities of Medellin.	June 28	Raymond Phelan, vice consul at Medellin.
COSTA RICA		
Markers for Pan American Highway	June 23	Legation, San Jose.
MEXICO		
Possibility of the development of Vera Cruz as seaside resort	July 12	William Karnes, vice consul at Vera Cruz.
PANAMA		
Panama declines to increase rates of postage to equal those of Canal Zone.	July 13	Herbert O. Williams, consul at Panama City.
PARAGUAY		
Excerpt from report on general conditions prevailing in Paraguay from May 1 to 31, 1932. (New budget submitted to Congress.)	May 31	Legation, Asuncion.
URUGUAY		
Status of the Montevideo-Colonia highway project	June 21	Leslie E. Reed, consul general at Montevideo.
VENEZUELA		
Islands of Los Roques. (Rocky Islands)	July 8	Ben C. Matthews, vice consul at La Guaira.

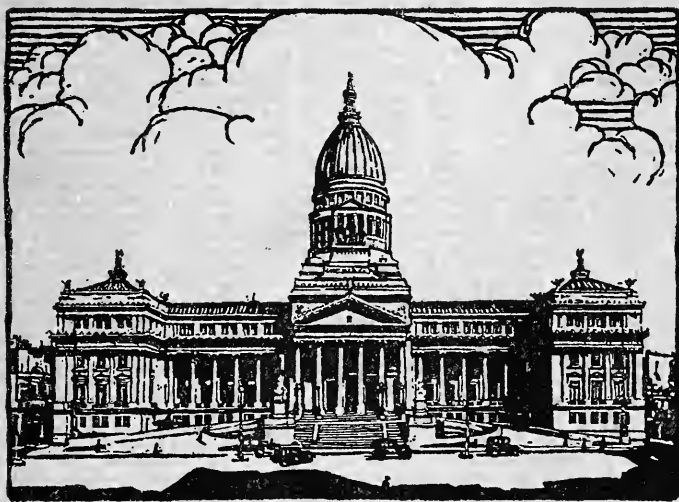




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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



THE CAPITOL, BUENOS AIRES

OCTOBER

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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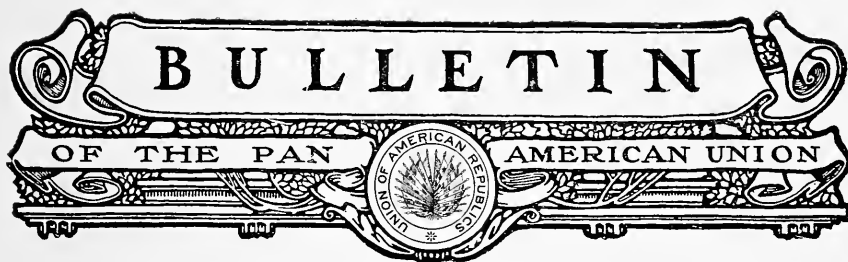
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ANDRÉS BELLO

Jurist, educator, poet, philologist and writer on many subjects. The present year marks the centennial of the first appearance in Chile of his "Principles of the Law of Nations," a basic work in international law.



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## ANDRÉS BELLO, A GREAT CONTRIBUTOR TO INTERNATIONAL LAW<sup>1</sup>

By MIGUEL CRUCHAGA TOCORNAL

*Ambassador of Chile in the United States*

THE year 1932 marks the centennial of the first appearance in Santiago, Chile, of the volume on *Principios de Derecho de Jentes* (Principles of the Law of Nations), written by Andrés Bello. This is indeed a significant anniversary, and the intellectuals of the American Continent unite in paying homage to the memory of Bello, a gifted man, an eminent jurist, a propagator of fertile ideas, who exerted a deep influence on the destinies of the Americas and whose name is venerated throughout the continent.

The name of this illustrious pioneer in the study of international law in Spanish America has been called to remembrance by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union,<sup>2</sup> the American Institute of International Law, and the American Society of International Law. The Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, at the suggestion of the Governing Board, is preparing for its series of Classics of International Law a reproduction of the first edition of *Principios de Derecho de Jentes*, with a preface by the distinguished Cuban jurist,

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<sup>1</sup> Andrés Bello, says a Spanish encyclopedia, was a Chilean public man and author, born in Caracas, Venezuela, on Nov. 29, 1781. Both the country of his birth and that of his adoption hold him one of their most honored citizens. About 1810 he served as an officer in the early Venezuelan struggle for independence and then went to England as secretary of a commission to solicit official support for the movement. He remained in England, teaching, studying, and writing, until he left to assume a government post in Chile, offered to him in 1827. The rest of his life was spent in the latter country, where he died in 1865, and was buried with imposing ceremonies by the nation.—*Editor*.

<sup>2</sup> See BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, June, 1932, for the resolution passed by the Governing Board.

Dr. Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante. Thus, by the unanimous consent of those who now continue what he began, Bello is enshrined in the high place he so justly deserves.

The activities of Bello in his more than 80 years of active life covered fields so varied and extensive that it is difficult for his biographers to give a satisfactory outline of his ability and achievements. As a vigorous philologist, he wrote a grammar of profound erudition. As a poet, he composed verses which are still memorized in the schools of South America. As a research scholar, he published studies on the American history of the eighteenth and first half of the nineteenth centuries which show unusual depths of understanding. As a critic, he penned essays on European literature which bear comparison with the best works of great minds. As a student of the law, he drafted a civil code for Chile which gives him a leading place among the jurists and lawmakers of Latin America.

The college which he established upon his arrival in the country of his adoption furnished the basis for the University of Chile, created in 1842, over which Bello presided until the time of his death in 1865, an occasion of deep mourning throughout the continent.

He organized the Ministry of Foreign Relations of Chile, having been engaged for that purpose in 1827 by Don Mariano Egaña, Minister of Chile in London. In a communication to the Ministry, Egaña said: "Bello possesses a broad classical education, a deep knowledge of literature, a complete mastery of the principal ancient and modern languages, and many personal qualities which are greatly enhanced by his modesty."

The results of Bello's activities in the Ministry of Foreign Relations were fruitful and lasting. In reality he directed Chile's foreign policy during the formative years of the Republic. In this work he was always inspired by well-defined ideals of continental brotherhood. He was the author of a provision incorporated in the first international treaties of Chile, reserving for that country the right to grant other Latin American countries more favorable conditions than those of the most-favored-nation clause. The name "Bello clause" has well been given to that reservation.

Among the best works of this illustrious man, the *Principios de Derecho de Jentes* stands out as a brilliant analytical exposition of the doctrines and practices of international law. It is in itself more than sufficient to make the author's name famous, for these principles of international law were not sharply defined at the time this monumental work appeared. Bello expounded them with clarity and with a beauty of style that delights the reader.

In the preface to the first edition of his book, Bello states that he found guidance in the works of the eighteenth-century publicists and in Chitty's *A Treatise on the Laws of Commerce and Manufactures and the Contracts Relating Thereto*, 1824; Elliot's *The American Diplomatic Code*; and Kent's *Commentaries on American Law*, 1829. To these sources may be traced the important influence of Anglo-Saxon viewpoints noticeable in Bello's work, since the first named was English and the other two were American.

In the discussion of the foundations and origins of international law, Bello sided with those who contend that international law is nothing more than natural law, that mankind is a great community of nations in which each has the same duties in regard to the others that human beings have toward their fellow men.

The doctrines of Bello on the right of the former Spanish colonies to form independent States, severing the ties that bound them to the mother country, exerted a positive influence on the destiny of the new Republics. He preached that the independence of those countries was an accomplished fact which other nations were obliged to recognize, and that it was their duty in the struggle between the mother country and its former colonies to remain neutral and to act accordingly.

In the American Continent Bello awakened a deep and wide interest in the study of international law. His influence has inspired those writers of this continent who have undertaken researches in that field and contributed with important works to the formation of international law as it is understood to-day.

The great Argentine jurist Calvo said of Bello's achievements: "He was the first to point out the inadequacy of the principles laid down in Vattel's work, and to attempt to correct those defects. He may be considered the forerunner of Wheaton, who quotes him frequently. The most distinguished authors speak of Bello's work with praise." The great merits of Bello's treatise are further evinced by the fact that it was translated into French and German and that it is quoted by eminent European writers.

The reputation as a jurist established by Bello mainly through his *Principios de Derecho de Jentes*—keeping step with the development of science, in later editions the author changed the title to *Principios de Derecho Internacional*—was increased by the ability he displayed in orienting Chile's foreign policy. His prestige was such that in 1864 the Governments of the United States and Ecuador asked him to arbitrate a controversy that had arisen between them. A similar

request was made of him during the following year by the Governments of Colombia and Peru. Advancing age and failing health compelled Bello to decline these highly complimentary requests, which were, we believe, the first of that nature to be made of a Latin American.

A profound influence was exerted by the work the centennial of whose publication we seek herein to commemorate. It has served as a textbook in almost all the universities of the American Continent, and the doctrines it sets forth have been quoted, as coming from the highest authority, in all the international disputes that have arisen in the New World.



THE BIRTHPLACE OF ANDRÉS BELLO, CARACAS, VENEZUELA



# SAO VICENTE, THE SMALL BEGINNING OF A GREAT NATION

By SPENCER VAMPRE

*Professor of Law, University of Sao Paulo*

ON the 22d of January, 1932, various ceremonies held throughout Brazil commemorated the four-hundredth anniversary of the founding of Sao Vicente, the oldest city in the southern part of the country and the place where Portuguese colonization began. Sao Vicente, which is situated on the seacoast of the State of Sao Paulo and has to-day about 8,000 inhabitants, was founded by Martim Affonso de Souza, whose colony gave Brazil its first church and its first customhouse.

The road of colonization is never smooth, and the case of Brazil was no exception. The Portuguese had not only the Indians to contend with but also their fellow Europeans: France, Spain, and Portugal were waging a mighty battle for empire in the Orient and in the New World. After Brazil was discovered in 1500 by the Portuguese navigator Alvares Cabral, not many years elapsed before the struggle for the riches of the country began. French ship owners were interested in Brazil wood, which was then used extensively as a dye. In 1503 they sent the ship *Espoir* to Brazil. It is also known that in 1511 a Portuguese ship, the *Bretôa*, arrived in the country. Part owner of this vessel was Fernando de Noronha, who gave his name to one of the islands on the Brazilian coast.

As time went on and trade increased the French and the Portuguese became more hostile to each other. The French used to establish settlements in which they left agents to gather the products of the soil and hold these in readiness for the return of the ships. The agents, of course, made all possible efforts to win the friendship of the Indians and to form alliances with them, in order to turn them against the Portuguese. These, for their part, policed the Brazilian coast, did their best to sink every French vessel they sighted, and hanged from his own mast every captain they captured. Moreover, Portugal kept spies in France and Spain, in order to learn of any projected expeditions to Brazil.

To furnish an example of the kind of warfare then carried on, it may be related that in 1527 the Spaniard Cristóbal Jacques, who had been in the service of the King of Portugal 11 years, guarding the coast of Brazil, found at Sao Salvador de Bahia the crews of two



THE LANDING OF MARTIM AFFONSO DE SOUZA

This historical painting by the Brazilian artist Benedito Calixto depicts the landing of the explorer in 1532 at the site of São Vicente, now a part of the port of Santos. Martin Affonso was met by two of his countrymen, Antonio Rodrigues and João Ramalho, who, after being shipwrecked on the Brazilian coast years before, had lived with the Indian tribes of the region. Ramalho is shown pointing the route to the highlands where the city of Piratininga, now São Paulo, was later established.

French ships engaged in loading Brazil wood. Attacking them by surprise, he sank the vessels, hanged some of the sailors, and buried others up to their shoulders, leaving their heads as a target for his marksmen. In 1531 Jean Dupérot, master of the ship *La Pélérine*, established a settlement at Pernambuco, in northeastern Brazil. Some time afterward, Pero Lopes de Souza came down upon the settlement and destroyed it completely.

Martim Affonso de Souza, a brother of Pero, left Portugal at the end of 1530 and arrived at Pernambuco in January of 1531. From there he sent one of his lieutenants, Diogo Leite, to explore the northern coast with two caravels. He himself set sail for the south,



SÃO VICENTE AND SANTOS

From an old print of the two towns as they appeared in their early days.

and made stops at Bahia, also called Sao Salvador; Rio de Janeiro, known as Guanabara; and Cananea, a port in the present State of Sao Paulo. Guided by the desire for silver, which was said to exist in great quantities in what afterwards came to be known as the Río de la Plata, or "River of Silver," he tried to go up that stream, but was shipwrecked and compelled to turn back. He arrived at Sao Vicente on the 22d of January, 1532, and on that date founded the city, set its limits, allotted the land among his men, and undertook the construction of all necessary buildings. He also convoked a council of "good men" for the purpose of electing the city authorities. De Souza was greatly aided in his undertaking by two of his

countrymen who were living among the Indians—Antonio Rodrigues, who was married to a daughter of Chief Piquerobi, and João Ramalho, who was married to a daughter of Chief Tibiriçá and was himself the chief of the Guainá Tribe. Friction developed between the Indians and the newly arrived Portuguese, and Ramalho moved to the heights overlooking Sao Vicente, where he founded the city of Santo André, which afterwards became fused with what is to-day the city of Sao Paulo, first called Piratininga.

The prosperity of Sao Vicente increased the interest of the Portuguese Government in Brazil. The country was afterwards divided into hereditary captaincies, whose limits began at the seacoast and continued into the interior "as far as the royal domain extends." That partition was a solemn occupation of all Brazilian lands. Various expeditions carried out in the eighteenth century enlarged this territory to its present proportions. Thus not only did the country's development and progress start with the founding of Sao Vicente, but it also may be said that therein lie the beginnings of the present territorial vastness of Brazil. Those erstwhile "royal domains" are to-day a republic with 40,000,000 inhabitants and an enormous expanse of land, and it may therefore be considered that January 22, 1532, is one of the most significant dates in the history of Brazil.



# THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF ARGENTINA <sup>1</sup>

By GERALD HERBERT SANDY

THE National Library of Argentina, located at Buenos Aires, was established at the nation's birth as its first public library. During Spanish rule the only libraries were those of the convents and those connected with institutions of learning and accessible solely to students and professors. In the century and a quarter of its independence the Argentine Republic has come to be perhaps the most progressive State of Spanish South America in various types of libraries, and its national library is among the best, both in service and in size.

The idea of establishing a public library in Buenos Aires existed for many years before its realization. Manuel Azamor y Ramírez, Bishop of Buenos Aires, at his death in 1796 left his books to be used in starting a public library, but the plan, delayed by the occupation of the city by the English under Beresford in 1806, was not carried out until the first revolutionary Junta came into power in 1810.<sup>2</sup> This Government ordered that, besides these books which were being held in trust, the entire library of Bishop Orellana and the books of other supporters of the opposing party be placed in public service, and informed the rector of the Colegio de San Carlos that, having decided to found a public library, the Junta had determined to incorporate in it the library of the college.<sup>3</sup> This plan must have been agreeable to the rector, Luis Chorroarpin, later one of the librarians, for he replied that he would gladly send not only the books of the college but several of his own as well, if they could be used.<sup>4</sup> Don Mariano Moreno, secretary of the Junta, was named "protector," and two librarians were appointed, Dr. Saturnino Seguro and Fray Cayetano Rodríguez.<sup>5</sup>

Although the library was national, there were other interests than that of the Central Government involved. The town council settled 500 pesos a year on each of the librarians, and a patriotic subscription which within three months reached the sum of 16,670 pesos, in addition to many books, maps, etc.,<sup>6</sup> gave the library a good start.

<sup>1</sup> Chapter VIII of "An Account of the National Libraries of South America," a thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree master of arts in library science in the Graduate School of the University of Illinois.

<sup>2</sup> Buenos Aires. Biblioteca nacional. Revista . . . 1879. Vol. 1, p. 459.

<sup>3</sup> Lucero, A. Nuestras bibliotecas desde 1810. 1910. p. 9.

<sup>4</sup> Buenos Aires. Biblioteca nacional, *op. cit.*, vol. 1, p. 461.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, vol. 1, p. 460.

<sup>6</sup> Sarmiento, N. Historia del libro y de las bibliotecas argentinas. 1930. p. 48.

Among the gifts was a substantial one from the English colony of the city, sent in token of appreciation of the hospitality which the people had accorded to the foreign settlers, and of the governmental protection which they had enjoyed.<sup>7</sup> However, those were stirring times in other fields as well, and public enthusiasm soon veered to more urgent matters, so that the opening of the library was delayed until March 16, 1812.

In a short time the Junta, being too much occupied in maintaining itself in power to be concerned about the library, allowed it to become dependent first upon the municipal administration and later upon the Province of Buenos Aires. It remained under this jurisdiction until 1884. However, the national character of the institution was still evident, since it had been created and was regulated by the central power and since many of its resources emanated from outside the city—as, for instance, subscriptions received from Concepcion and Cordoba. With conditions as they existed at that time, the library did well to make any progress at all, and the administration of Manuel Moreno, brother of the first “protector” and director during this period, may be considered very successful.

During Moreno's term as librarian (1822–1828) he completed the first real organization of the library, which, without more change than natural development required, was retained until Quesada revised it in 1877.<sup>8</sup> The staff, consisting of the director, two assistants, and a porter (a secretary was added during the term of Señor Mármol), served the public daily from 9 a. m. until 2 p. m. . . . The budget comprised 600 pesos annually for books and running expenses, 500 pesos for the director's salary, and 1 peso per day for the rest of the staff.<sup>9</sup> Moreno also directed the first inventory which the writer has found obtainable. The results of this count show that the first decade of the library's existence, although one of strife and turmoil for the nation generally, was not an unprofitable one for the library—rather, in fact, the most progressive which the institution should see until it again came under the control of the National Government. According to statistics published in the *Registro estadístico* of 1823, there were in the library 17,229 volumes, not including 1,500 duplicates, which were used during the year by 3,284 readers—a very good record compared with that of 1871, when the collection of 20,104 volumes served 3,000 readers of a population probably four times that of 1823.<sup>10</sup> Although the fact that Buenos Aires lagged behind other parts of the country during that half century in its social culture, public education

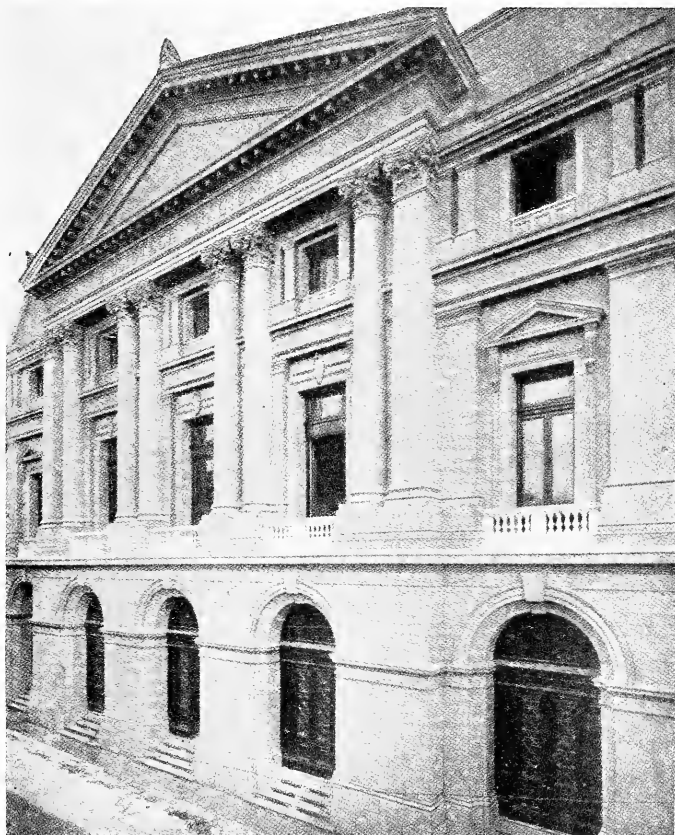
<sup>7</sup> Buenos Aires. Biblioteca nacional, *op. cit.*, vol. 1, p. 475–77. Letters and list of donors.

<sup>8</sup> La Biblioteca 1: 28 June, 1896. La Biblioteca de Buenos Aires, by P. Groussac.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 29.

<sup>10</sup> La Biblioteca 1:30 June, 1896. La Biblioteca de Buenos Aires, by P. Groussac.

and press would account for some lack of progress in the library, this comparison bears out Lucero's statement that, with the exception of Doctor Quesada, who enriched the library and gave it the basis of its modern organization, the chronicle of directors from Moreno to Groussac is only a gallery of portraits where likeness is of less value than the technique, careless though that may often be.<sup>11</sup>



THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF ARGENTINA, BUENOS AIRES

Argentina's first public library was established in 1810 and formally opened in March, 1812, although the idea had been conceived many years earlier.

The decadence which set in at the beginning of this period was mentioned in an official decree issued the day after the resignation in 1833 of Presbyter Ignacio Grela, a pamphleteer, politician, and open-forum orator who replaced Moreno, November 25, 1828, when the latter was appointed Argentina's Ambassador to the Court of St. James's.<sup>12</sup> Between 1833 and 1852 the library had but two directors—Dr. José

<sup>11</sup> Lucero, *op. cit.*, pp. 17-18.

<sup>12</sup> *La Biblioteca* 1:161-62, July, 1896, *op. cit.*

María Terrero, whose term extended from November 14, 1833, to January 18, 1837, and Dr. Felipe Elortando y Palacios, who succeeded him. . . .

Up to this time the directors of the library had all been members of the clergy, but in the general educational revival which followed the fall of Rosas in 1852, the library was laicized. The directorship of Marcos Sastre, lasting but a year, was too short to be productive of many results, but that of his successor, Carlos Tejedor, April 14, 1853, to October 23, 1858, may be said to have terminated the almost legendary period of the library's history.

From that time on, although the organization was still defective, at least natural development was given a chance. The first report of Doctor Tejedor, published in 1854, gave the total number of volumes in the library as 15,397 and the number of readers of the year as 1,695.<sup>13</sup> Since the library was not blessed with a generous budget, Doctor Tejedor's efforts to rehabilitate it were somewhat cramped, and he complained that not only were there no funds for book purchases, but nobody ever donated anything to the library. Nevertheless, the library was in much better shape when, appointed Government assessor, he relinquished the reins to the poet José Mármol.

Señor Mármol's long term of office was unmarked by any memorable innovation, either good or bad, and the only original suggestion of the director seems to have been that the theological section of the library should be moved to some monastery where it would be more appropriately placed, leaving room in the library for more works on science, literature, and the arts. Nothing came of this suggestion, however, and the collection was turned over intact to Dr. Vicente Quesada, lawyer and publicist, on September 23, 1876, after Mármol's death.<sup>14</sup>

The new director was an indefatigable worker as well as a prolific writer, who discharged his duty with zeal, contributing to the regulation, classification, and bibliographical description of the library. His inventory of 1872 took account of 20,014 volumes in the library, 1,928 of which had been acquired during his year of work. Since the inventory of 1881, two years after he was succeeded by Manuel Ricardo Trelles, a writer and archivist, showed a total of 13,645 works in 31,601 volumes, plus 909 volumes of newspapers and periodicals,<sup>15</sup> we may conclude that Quesada augmented the collection considerably. Perhaps his greatest improvement in a material way was the construction and installation of a new reading room, which he fin-

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 171.

<sup>14</sup> *La Biblioteca* 1:186, July, 1896, *op. cit.*

<sup>15</sup> Buenos Aires. *Biblioteca nacional, op. cit.*, 1882, vol. 4, p. 511.



ished during the last two years of his term, thus climaxing his industrious administration.

It remained for Señor Trelles to inaugurate this new room, and to classify provisionally its 8,699 works, which were divided into four sections according to the main divisions of the library. The annual attendance of readers had increased from 5,017 in 1873 to 6,953 in 1880, and still further to 7,715 in 1881, after which there was a slight decrease.<sup>16</sup> Trelles was especially interested in building up the collection of periodicals, and made every effort to complete the library's sets of those published in America, particularly in Argentina. He had previously been in charge of the national archives, and had edited a *Revista del archivo*, which he now continued in the *Revista de la biblioteca*, publishing thus various historical documents from the library's collection. During his five years in the library, 1879-1884, he increased the library's holdings by 3,386 volumes, not including periodicals, manuscripts, and maps.<sup>17</sup>

Mention should perhaps be made here of the attempts of the Government to found a national library while the one under discussion, although answering very nearly to that description, was still the property of the Province of Buenos Aires. In 1870 President Sarmiento gave a great impulse to public library work by forming the *Comisión Protectora de Bibliotecas Populares*. At the same time he created the *Biblioteca y Depósito de Libros*. Both these projects were ill-fated, for of the 182 public libraries established by the *Comisión* before its abolition in 1876, only 15 remained in 1895, and the *Biblioteca*, which was hardly more than a depository for Government publications, was finally incorporated in the *Biblioteca Nacional de Maestros* in 1884.<sup>18</sup>

After the law of September 20, 1880, had made Buenos Aires the nation's capital and the provincial government had removed to La Plata, it was almost inevitable that the library should be nationalized. The national and provincial governments each appointed a commission, and arrangements were completed on September 9, 1884, whereby *La Biblioteca Pública de Buenos Aires* became *La Biblioteca Nacional*.<sup>19</sup> Señor Trelles having resigned because of his attitude toward the Federal Government, Dr. José Antonio Wilde, as first director of the library in its new character, had the honor of organizing it and formulating its first regulations. His death on January 14, 1885, cut short his administration before he had time to develop his plans.<sup>20</sup>

<sup>16</sup> Buenos Aires. *Biblioteca nacional*, *op. cit.*, 1882, vol. 4, p. 481.

<sup>17</sup> *La Biblioteca* 1:190, July, 1896, *op. cit.*

<sup>18</sup> For complete history of these projects, see Lucero, *op. cit.*, pp. 21-69.

<sup>19</sup> *La Biblioteca* 1: 191, July, 1896, *op. cit.*

<sup>20</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 192.

Paul Groussac, a historian and critic, appointed director January 14, 1885, had an exceptionally long administration, and during the 40 years of his management he set up such a high standard and at the end left such an enviable record that it must have been with some trepidation that his successor accepted the position. So closely did he stick to his task, and so little time did he spend in compiling statistics, making reports, and like activities, that the *Memorias* of the Minister of Justice, Religion, and Public Instruction, upon whose department the library has been dependent since its nationalization,



READING ROOM OF THE NATIONAL LIBRARY

The present collection of about 200,000 volumes has grown from the nucleus bequeathed in 1796 by Manuel Azamor y Ramírez, Bishop of Buenos Aires, for the purpose of starting a public library.

must be relied upon almost entirely for indications of the institution's development.

Within two years the library had grown to such an extent that the building was inadequate for the proposed installation of a binding department and an exchange office, its 22,041 works, in about 50,000 volumes, demanding so much room that it was perhaps a relief that there was no law compelling copyright deposits.<sup>21</sup> The library was extending its service as well as increasing in size, for in the year 1886-87 it was used by 7,990 readers, a larger number than ever before, although even that seems now a small enough percentage of

<sup>21</sup> Argentine Republic. Ministerio de justicia, culto é instrucción pública. Memoria, 1887. pp. cxxxiii-cxxxiv.

the city's 400,000 inhabitants.<sup>22</sup> Space must have been at a premium long before anything was done greatly to relieve the crowded condition, for the report of March 24, 1899, signed by the vice director, Don Emilio H. de Padilla, placed the library's holdings at 43,139 works in 80,562 volumes.<sup>23</sup> Such congestion as there must have been would seem to call for action, which was forthcoming at last when the Argentine Government took over the National Lottery Building, one of the handsomest public buildings in Buenos Aires, and converted it into a home for the National Library.

At the opening of the new quarters on December 27, 1901, Señor Groussac, in the address of the day, characterized the library as first in Latin America in its classics and periodical collections, although it could boast comparatively few bibliographical treasures in the way of manuscripts and incunabula.<sup>24</sup>

One regrettable incident of Señor Groussac's early administration was the cessation of *La Biblioteca* after a short life. This was a monthly publication, founded in 1896 by Groussac, in which appeared hitherto unpublished papers and articles in the fields of history, science, and letters. In the list of contributors can be found the names of such notable men as President Bartolomé Mitre; Rubén Darío, the great Nicaraguan poet who reached the height of his fame while residing in Buenos Aires; Juan Bautista Alberdi, writer on social and economic subjects; and Domingo F. Sarmiento, who, as we have seen, was deeply interested in education and libraries. During its two years of existence it maintained a high editorial standard, and one can not but feel that the official censure of one article was a little severe and that the resulting cessation of publication was too drastic a measure in reply.<sup>25</sup>

The greatest work of Director Groussac, a task which extended throughout his long administration, was the cataloguing of the library. The Brunet system of classification was adopted and modified to suit the library's particular needs. One volume of the catalogue was published on each large subject as it was finished, with occasional revisions; for instance, volume 2, covering the subjects history and geography, with subdivisions A-Z, was published in 1900 and revised in 1925.<sup>26</sup>

A new era of library work in the Republic began in 1908, under the direction of Rómulo S. Naón, Minister of Justice and Public Instruction, with the reestablishment of the *Cómission Protectora de Bibliotecas* and the organization of the National Association of

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.* pp. cxxvi-cxxviii.

<sup>23</sup> Lucero, *op. cit.*, pp. 18-19.

<sup>24</sup> Buenos Aires. Biblioteca nacional. Inauguración de la Biblioteca nacional. 1902. p. 16.

<sup>25</sup> La Biblioteca 8 : 244-48, May, 1898. La desaparición de "La Biblioteca," by P. Groussac.

<sup>26</sup> Buenos Aires, Biblioteca nacional. Catálogo metódico . . . vol. 1-, 1893-.

Libraries. The National Library felt the impulse of this increased activity, and in that same year the collection was augmented by the purchase of the library of Dr. Martín García Merou, consisting of 5,320 volumes on history, law, and literature.<sup>27</sup> During the year, 36,579 volumes were consulted in the library by 29,918 readers.<sup>28</sup> Three years later the library was made the copyright depository, and by December, 1911, the collection had reached a total of 128,203 works in 206,110 volumes, plus about 5,000 volumes of maps and newspapers.<sup>29</sup> . . .

The library, however, was developing in other directions and giving service in other ways than simply in the furnishing of books and reading facilities to its patrons. The administration took advantage, in a very progressive way, of the educational facilities of the library, and during the fiscal year 1915, when 61,804 readers visited the library, 38 lectures, art entertainments, etc., were given by the institution.<sup>30</sup>

The library has for many years enjoyed a steady and rapid growth, with neither serious hindrance nor spectacular favors to trouble the stream of its development. The library section of the annual report of the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction states regularly that no incident of particular note has occurred during the year, but that the burden on the staff becomes heavier and heavier, and that the present building is becoming inadequate. By 1920 the annual attendance had passed the 80,000 mark, with nearly 120,000 books consulted by the readers.<sup>31</sup> In 1927, the last year for which figures are available, almost at the close of Señor Groussac's long and successful administration, 190,487 books were used by 99,756 readers.<sup>32</sup>

After the death of Director Groussac, in 1929, Dr. Carlos Melo was appointed to fill the vacancy, but he lived only a short time after taking charge of the library. He was succeeded by the present incumbent, Dr. Gustavo Martínez Zuviría, the famous novelist. He is perhaps better known by his pseudonym, Hugo Wast, and his work enjoys considerable reputation in this country as well as in South America. His intellectual capacity and literary ability augur well for progressive and increasing service with the smooth-running organization and expert staff which he inherited from his predecessors. His appointment has placed him at the head of the largest library in a country where library progress is something more than idle talk.

<sup>27</sup> Argentine Republic. Ministerio de justicia é instrucción pública. Memoria, 1908. p. 256.

<sup>28</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 260-61.

<sup>29</sup> *Ibid.*, 1912, pp. 54-55.

<sup>30</sup> *Ibid.*, 43 : 252-53, August, 1916. National Library.

<sup>31</sup> Argentine Republic. Ministerio de justicia é instrucción pública, *op. cit.*, 1920. Vol. 2, p. 353.

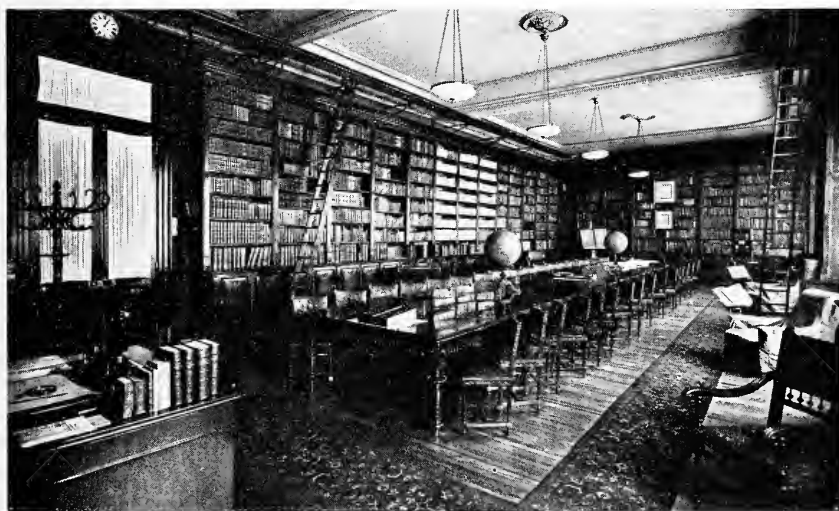
<sup>32</sup> Argentine Republic. Ministerio de justicia é instrucción pública. Estadística, año 1927. Tab. 136-37.

There are functioning in the Republic, distributed in the Federal capital, the Provinces, and the territories, 1,313 popular libraries, with a total of more than 2,500,000 volumes, varying from 1,000 to 70,000 volumes each.<sup>33</sup> Since library employees of the country are beginning to feel the need of training in library economy and bibliography to raise themselves to the rank of professional workers, plans have been suggested for the establishment of library schools and for the incorporation of courses in library science in the curricula of the provincial normal schools, with the National Library as the center of these activities.<sup>34</sup>

Argentina holds a leading place in South American library matters, and her National Library is a credit to this reputation, which bids fair to be upheld in the future.

<sup>33</sup> *La Literatura argentina* 4 : 48, October, 1931. *Las bibliotecas populares* . . .

<sup>34</sup> *Ibid.*, 4:37:38, October, 1931. *Plan de estudios para una escuela de bibliotecarios*, por Alfredo Console.



## IN BOLIVIA

### I. LAKE TITICACA AND LA PAZ <sup>1</sup>

**I**T is a curious sensation, after traveling for several days up from Mollendo, Peru, to the high altitudes of the Andes, to alight from the train on the shores of Lake Titicaca and see, docked at the pier, a vessel which has all the appearance and nearly the size of an ocean liner. It is as if one had been dreaming and had suddenly awakened in a most unexpected place. . . .

Lake Titicaca is not only the highest but one of the most beautiful bodies of navigable fresh water in the world. On the maps of the old school geographies the lake is a mere dot, and until one crosses it the impression is likely to remain that altitude alone is its most distinguishing feature. Study of a large-scale map, however, reveals the fact that it is nearly one-third the size of Lake Ontario. It is situated at the central point of a vast basin, on the western side of the main Cordillera of the Andes, where the water might reasonably be supposed to flow into the Pacific, but does not, on the surface, at least. The overflow from Titicaca is drained by the River Desaguadero into Lake Poopo, which has no visible outlet, and it is generally conceded that evaporation eventually returns all the waters from this vast watershed to the heavens whence they came.

Before sunrise, just as the first silver rays begin to light up the snow-capped range at the east of the lake, is the correct time to rise on board the steamer. Nearly 75 miles of perpetual snow are then in sight in the distance, looking deceptively near and but little above the level of the water. It is almost unbelievable that some of these peaks are more than 22,000 feet high, nearly 2 miles higher than the lake. There are no possible color combinations which the rising sun does not bring out as its first rays strike the glistening, silvery heights—the browns and grays and greens of mountain side and valley, and the deep blue of the lake. The longer one journeys about on the top of the world, over land and inland sea, the more readily one can understand how easy it was for the Incas to make the sun their God, and how, for so many centuries, the sun was worshipped in these regions as the source of all life, and hope, and joy, here and hereafter; and if, as tradition has it, the first Inca and his sister wife were born or first appeared at sunrise, on an island in Titicaca, one comprehends how they were immediately accepted as the “Children of the Sun.”

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<sup>1</sup> From “Bolivia,” Vol. III, No. 3.

As the port of Guaqui, on the shores of Bolivia, at the southern end of the lake, is neared, the traveler is usually glad if a return voyage in a few days will give the pleasure of another night on the steamer and another sunrise on Titicaca. The passenger goes ashore with mingled reluctance and anticipation—reluctance at parting from the beautiful scenery, excellent accommodations of the ship, and anticipation of the interesting journey to La Paz.

The Bolivian highlands to the south and east of Lake Titicaca have many remains and ruins of a civilization which was, without doubt, pre-Incan and which are entirely prehistoric. The most important of these are on the plains of Tiahuanaco, 13 miles from Guaqui. Many are in sight from the railway, and there are enough within easy walking distance of the station to require several hours



THE PORT OF GUAQUI, LAKE TITICACA

At the Bolivian port of Guaqui, trains for La Paz connect with modern lake steamers.

for even a cursory examination—ruins of immense walls with doorways and archways still intact; life-size human figures and animals carved from solid rock; doorways and archways covered with carved images, figures, and designs, the significance of which no one has been able to discover. One such archway, which is near the railway station, is used by the village boys as a target for rifle practice. The size and extent of these ruins and the immense size of many of the stones make all conjecture as to their origin futile, as there are no known quarries of similar rock within many miles, and it is beyond the possibilities that such immense stones were ever moved long distances and placed in position by mere man power.

It is said that in the building of the Guaqui-La Paz Railway hundreds of carloads of these ruins, priceless as historical remnants of an



CONGRESSIONAL BUILDING, LA PAZ

The modern building in which the Congress meets faces an attractive square. In the center is a monument to one of the country's heroes, Pedro Domingo Murillo, who gave up his life in the cause of independence.

unknown civilization, were broken up and used in the grading and in construction of culverts, foundations, and buildings; thus did the ruthless hand of man despoil for commercial purposes, without regard to sentimental and historical value, the mute monuments erected by a race and civilization the age of which no man can even guess. Whence came the thousands by whose labor these great walls were built? In what dim distant ages was the work accomplished? What purpose did it serve on this high Andean plateau? By what flood, famine, or catastrophe did the race become extinct, unknown, and forgotten? These questions will probably for all time remain unanswered, but those who care to theorize and speculate over secrets buried centuries ago will here find much food for meditation.

From Guaqui to El Alto the railway follows the broad plateau at an almost even grade, rising only about 1,000 feet in the 55 miles. The first evidence that a city is near is the well-kept golf course near the railway at El Alto. Here the steam locomotive is exchanged for a powerful electric motor, and it is only after the precipitous descent is begun that La Paz comes into view, nearly 1,200 feet straight below. El Alto has every appearance of being the "jumping-off place," and it looks as if nothing short of an airplane could possibly negotiate the descent in safety, but by a series of circles and loops, traversing a distance of only 5 miles, the train is brought to the station at the edge of the city.

La Paz has gayer colors, steeper hills, better stores, more excellent motor cars, and a greater range of altitude than any other Andean city. It is the center of five railways—one to the south to Antofa-





VENEZUELA AVENUE, LA PAZ

This avenue in the residential district is one of the comparatively few level thoroughfares in the capital. Most of the streets follow the contour of the hills and as a result are steep and winding.

gasta; one to the west to Arica; one to the north to Lake Titicaca and Mollendo; one to the southeast to Buenos Aires; and one to the east, tapping the immense fruit and agricultural belt of the lower montaña called Yungas.

The Plaza de Armas, the only nearly level spot in the city, is surrounded by the Government Palace, the Congressional building, Hotel Paris, and the Cathedral, which has been under construction for nearly 200 years. It is built from solid stone, after an old colonial design, and will be a very imposing structure when entirely completed.

The elevation of the main portion of the city is 12,000 feet. Within the limits of electric-car travel it is possible to go up nearly 1,400 feet above the city to the golf course and down nearly 1,000 feet through the residential section below the city. The difference in climatic conditions within this range of nearly half a mile in elevation is quite remarkable. Up at the golf course it may be cold and bleak, and even snowing, while in the lower sections, in the vicinity of beautiful homes, parks, gardens, and resorts in the sheltered canyon, the sun shines and flowers bloom almost continually; and not so very far below, oranges and other tropical fruits flourish perpetually.

The public market in La Paz is the greatest attraction for strangers and tourists, and in many respects is unique. The stalls are practically all occupied by Indian women and children in picturesque native costumes, and there is scarcely an article of food or apparel that one will not find displayed for sale at ridiculously low prices.

The wares most interesting to visitors are the hand-woven woolen goods and blankets, *ponchos*, rugs, spreads, shawls, and wearing apparel of all kinds, mostly in gay colors and at a range of prices from 10 cents to \$20. Alpaca and vicuña rugs are so beautiful and so cheap as to be almost irresistible, and many people who visit La Paz spend more money on fur goods than on railway transportation.

Commercially, La Paz presents to the stranger a very prosperous and busy aspect. It is not only the governmental but the commercial center of Bolivia; the wholesale distributing center for a vast territory rich in minerals, agriculture, fruits, coca, rubber, and livestock. Seemingly small wholesale agencies transact a surprisingly large volume of business, and retail stores, well stocked with merchandise from every quarter of the globe, have a metropolitan appearance which one scarcely expects to find in this land-bound mountain city.

To the north and east of La Paz is one of the most fascinating mountain scenes imaginable; nearly 75 miles of peaks covered with perpetual snow are in view from almost any point in the city. The steep walls of the canyon, within which the city is built, are most picturesque in coloring and formation. The erosion of centuries has gashed and gouged the mountain sides into grotesque shapes, and the city, as viewed from above, forms a never-to-be-forgotten picture. To one who views it for the first time it looks unreal, as if it were the creation of some imaginative artist. Many have tried to describe it, but no one will ever be able to fully convey a vivid impression of the surprising beauty and grandeur of the sight as for the first time he gazes down into this awe-inspiring canyon filled with glistening, red-tiled roofs.

## II. IN THE INCA EMPIRE<sup>1</sup>

By NELLY MERINO CARVALLO

Over the calm of Lake Titicaca the moon shed her waning light. As dawn broke, the immense Andine cordillera was still hidden in a sleepy mist, above which towered only the snowy peaks of Illampu and Illimani. No signs of life were anywhere apparent. Everything seemed enveloped in a gray veil, oppressive and sad, like the thoughts which invade the mind on nights heavy with wakefulness.

Gently, with brush strokes of opal and vermilion, dawn opened a path between dark clouds to pour over the world its luminous wealth. Little by little the unending chain of mountains emerged. Huayna, Potosi, Sorata, Muruata, Chacaltaya, slowly coming to life, raised the violet profiles of their lofty summits. Fleecy clouds

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<sup>1</sup> Translated from the Spanish.

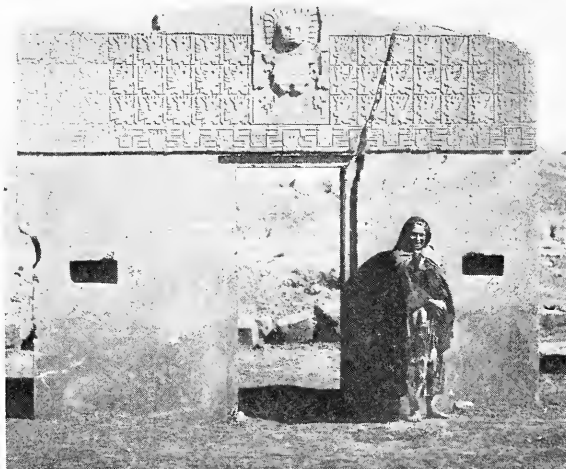
offered a prodigal display of colors against the grayness which was melting away to disclose the blue sky. Suddenly the molten metal of the sun appeared above the surface of the sacred lake.

All the marvelous spectrum of a dawn which ostentatiously parades its pomp and magnificence had passed before our eyes. In the light-flooded space could be seen desolate peaks, some green, others yellow and sere. A strong wind blew coldly from the heights. Flocks of crying gulls rose to meet us, filling the air with the gleam of their white plumage and the rustling of their wings.

How delicious it was to sail hour after hour on Titicaca, an ocean imprisoned between snow and rocks without the fury of the sea, and to have as inseparable traveling companions the glistening Andes!

MONOLITHIC DOOR-  
WAY AT TIAHUA-  
NACO

Not far from the southern shore of Lake Titicaca are the pre-Incan ruins at Tiahuanaco. Perhaps the most interesting is the great sculptured doorway.



The celebrated lakes of Switzerland—blue Geneva guarded by Mont Blanc, green Lucerne below the Rigi and Pilatus, and all the others—how tiny they seemed in memory before the wide-stretching waters of Titicaca and its surrounding peaks covered with perpetual snow!

As we approached the Island of the Moon the mountains showed more vegetation. Their folds seemed to be arranged with conscious artistry, and one could see groups of trees around the native dwellings. Small flocks of goats were playing on the hillsides, while the goatherd, seated on a pile of rocks, played strains of sad music on his flute.

Noon. After sailing six hours we arrived at the island, famous for its polygonal stone monuments and for its traditions and legends. My imagination, nourished on Prescott's *The Conquest of Peru* and other books which present vividly to the imagination that long-past

epoch, had dreamed for years of seeing the *Iñakuyu*, or temple of the *Ñustas*, the virgins dedicated to the cult of the Moon, as the vestals of Rome were dedicated to the guardianship of the sacred flame.

With an emotion almost religious, I visited the weatherbeaten ruins of their palace. The walls and doorways of the *Iñakuyu* are well preserved. Tradition says that there were altars covered with plates of gold, silver, and copper, ornamented with figures, carvings, and hieratic inscriptions. Bits of wall painted in various colors still exist for our admiration. But nothing is more noteworthy than the "pre-Inca" wall, famous for the delicacy of its carving and the laying of its stones, so closely fitted together that not even a pin can get between them. On the great terrace, high above the level of the lake, the rites of the cult were celebrated. Here it was that the *ñustas* danced the sacred dances before the Inca, the king and lord of the country of the Tahuantinsuyos, the high priest of the Sun.

Only women inhabited the Island of the Moon, the seraglio of the monarch, virgins who lived isolated, far from the glances of men. Under the spell of the legend, one must forget a while the present moment and shut one's eyes to all that to us means civilization and culture. Then one sees, through the veil of fantasy, this great patio with its niches and altars laden with precious objects. Gleaming idols of gold show their disdainful faces. Tapestry hangs from the marvelous walls of polished stone. And the *ñustas*, flowers of youth and beauty, dance to the sound of Inca instruments, amid clouds of incense burned in pots of silver and clay.

In the background lies the lake, deep and quiet. The sky, of that intense blue peculiar to Bolivia, is cloudless, caressed by the dying rays of the sun or by the first silvery light of the moon.

And from his invisible window the Inca chooses the queen for his hours of dreams and of love. Suddenly he appears, elegant in his chinchilla wrap and necklaces of pure gold. Blinded by the beauty of the favored *ñusta*, he sings the hymn of love, the divine lever of the world, by which man is enabled to rise above himself. From the damp earth rises the perfume of flowers which mingles with the odor of the burning incense. The carnations, stirred by the breeze, let fall their petals, red as blood, or yellow as the gold of the Andean heights.

### III. SUCRE <sup>1</sup>

By JUAN ANDRÉS CUELLO FREYRE

It might be said that time has stood still in Sucre, the white city of the four names.

Four epochs of the past are incarnate on Bolivian soil—prehistoric times, at Tiahuanaco; Inca rule, in the Islands of the Sun and Moon;

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<sup>1</sup> Translated from the Spanish.

colonial days, at Potosi; and at Sucre, the glory of those May days in 1809 when that early attempt was made to secure independence. No other country on our continent, to the best of my belief, can boast more perfect symbols of the past than these.

After some hours' travel by highway from Potosi, over lofty mountains, along high precipices, through deep ravines, and beside clear rocky streams, Sucre suddenly appears at the bottom of a slope, its white houses and towers rising amid groves. It lies in a fertile and smiling valley, removed from the barren high plateau traversed by the Pan American Railway, and is little visited by tourists. This is the old city of the Spanish Audiencia and of the famous



Photograph by I. F. Scheeler

#### THE CATHEDRAL, SUCRE

The cathedral is one of the notable structures in the "City of the Four Names," about which an atmosphere of colonial days still lingers. Its exterior is reminiscent of that of the cathedral at Seville.

University of St. Francis Xavier, the great center of learning founded in 1624 and long called "the Brain of American Independence" because of the patriots there bred.

There is still a colonial flavor about this city, first known as La Plata, because of the silver thereabouts; then as Charcas from the Indians of the region; later as Chuquisaca; and now called by the name of the great soldier who organized the new nation of Bolivia. Coats of arms adorn Sucre's ancestral mansions, whose baroque façades are wrought like filigree. A delicate atmosphere of bygone days pervades the streets, as if an impalpable mist rose from the Audiencia, the University, and the Cathedral. Even if the very

stones and bricks were not historic, if *oidores* and heroes of independence had not walked its sun-bathed streets, still the chaste architecture of early days, the high-walled convents whose massive doors show the ravages of gnawing time, the rusted garden gates behind which are perpetual perfume, color, and fruit, would still transport the beholder back a hundred years.

The atmosphere of silence and meditation, the quietude of provincial life, notwithstanding the diverse manufactures of the city, the mountain landscape of grays, blues, and reddish tints, are all conducive to serenity of spirit and the noblest emotions of the heart. As might be expected in such an environment, the common people are affable and kindly, and the patrician families vie with each other in refinement and culture to uphold the honor of their escutcheons.

One day the railway will bring more dynamic industrialism and the exploitation of natural wealth; the population will increase; the city's aspect will be changed; and the smoke of chimneys will try to dim the limpidity of the heavens and the purity of the rosy clouds in those magnificent sunsets when the shades of the elders—Bolívar, Sucre, and the rest—seem to walk these streets of legend and tradition. But the white city of the Audiencia, the University, and the Cathedral will continue to be a center of learning, and the orange trees will still scent the air from the neighboring groves, as the gracious women on their flower-bedecked balconies shed a fragrance on the life of the city. . . .

#### IV. TARIJA <sup>1</sup>

By LUIS AZURDUY

In the gentle quiet of the valley at the foot of Sama's chilly heights is set Tarija, drowsy with the scent of mint, sweet marjoram, and thyme, and lulled by the murmur of the river that passes by the walls of country places blessed with a Virgilian abundance.

For all the commerce that centers here, it is a sweet and tranquil life that is led in these streets, undisturbed by the roar of traffic or by hurrying crowds; the hands of the clock on the church of San Francisco do not hasten on their appointed round; ample doors, as wide open as a generous hand, offer cool glimpses of a tiled patio shaded by a leafy orange tree around which the family is gathered at the close of day; at the side of long, dusty lanes are runlets of clear water; and over the adobe walls hang now and then bursting figs, opulent bunches of grapes, or red-cheeked peaches.

Here is a cart drawn by a pair of meditative oxen; there, a man throwing pebbles at a troop of teasing children; then a swift motor passes, frightening a mettlesome horse unfriendly to the machine age

<sup>1</sup> Translated from the Spanish.

and forcing to one side the baker's boy with his basket of warm, sweet-smelling rolls—rolls which will be eaten with the delicious Bolivian coffee. . . .

It is night. Orange trees border the park and principal streets; their fragrant blossoms, symbol of the marriage day, await the kiss of the moon. Pairs of humble lovers walk enraptured, and far away strains of music fade into the magic of the night.

"Every saint has his story": Our Lady of the Rosary is bornedown from St. John's Hill in a shower of rose petals; the Easter procession passes under arches scented with green herbs and gay flowers; and the fiesta of San Roque has its canes interlacing over the polychrome throng. . . .

Over the roads leading into the city come laden donkeys, driven by youths singing the joy of living and the fruitfulness of the earth on which the rain has fallen like a blessing from heaven. On their wide-brimmed hats they wear sprigs of bright flowers or sweet basil, plucked as they set out from their distant farms. They bring coffee, coca leaves, hides for tanning, or grain to be made into flour. Often there are cattle, too, perhaps to be sent to other markets, for Tarija is the capital of the Province and center of all this fertile region.



A SECTION OF TARIJA

The city of Tarija, in the southern part of Bolivia, is situated in a rich agricultural valley

# A COLONIAL CHURCH IN PARAGUAY<sup>1</sup>

By PABLO ALBORNO

YAGUARON is situated on the Paraguay River, about 20 miles from Asuncion. The present town was founded in 1536 at the time of the Spanish conquest by Diego Martínez de Irala and Father Francisco Miranda, who also started settlements at Ita and Atyra and established chapels in each of these reductions, as Indian settlements of Jesuit or Franciscan origin or under the control of missionaries were known in colonial South America.

It was in Yaguaron that the first great church in the countries of the River Plate was built, between 1670 and 1720, and dedicated to San Roque. And since the fathers under whose direction it was erected had no stone suitable for a façade, they contented themselves with erecting a great dwelling, about 350 feet long by 80 feet broad, with porticos 20 feet wide. The massive walls, more than 3 feet thick, were made of stones and brick set in a strong red mortar; embedded in them were heavy wooden uprights. The roof rested on heavy carved beams, originally supported on a colonnade of round hardwood pillars, 22 feet high and 20 inches in diameter, surmounted by stone capitals. These pillars were later replaced by others of fired brick, as may be observed in the accompanying illustration of the exterior of the building.

This sanctuary, so severely simple on the exterior, is all glorious within. On entering it the visitor is overwhelmed by the rich ornamentation and the superb painted and gilded wood carving of its altars, which recall those in the Spanish baroque churches of this period.

In discussing this church we must take into consideration the time at which it was erected and the scarcity of resources for such a structure, while at the same time we marvel at the competence of the architects and artists who built it. Still strong and unimpaired by the ravages of time, it stands to the glory of God and the honor of its builders. True, they had at their command the various beautiful and lasting woods of the vicinity, colors extracted from native plants for use as paints, and gold from the mine at Atyra. Red was obtained from the *Bixa orellana*, a bluish green from the *Eupatorium laeve*, a dark green from maté, the shrub which furnishes leaves for the so-called Paraguayan tea, violet and black from *Genipa americana*, and white from clay and chalk. These were the pigments which the Guaraní Indians had used before the conquest for their textiles,

<sup>1</sup> Translated from "Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay," Asunción, May, 1931, by courtesy of the author and the society.



tattooing, and pottery. With these colors the artists painted the saints and angels in lovely tones; then, combining the stains with glue, they emblazoned the roof and pillars of the church, and to make the effect more brilliant and preserve it undimmed, they put on a varnish made from resin. To judge by the freshness of the colors to-day, this varnish was of excellent quality. The retable, altars, pulpits, and confessionals also retain their lovely polychrome.

All gilding on these various works of art is of pure gold, hammered into leaf and then applied over a coat of plaster with fish glue and *ysy*, the resin of which the varnish was made. The gold remains intact after the passage of more than two centuries. On some altars one may



Courtesy of the Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay

#### CHURCH OF SAN ROQUE, YAGUARON, PARAGUAY

Built between 1670 and 1720, this was the first large church erected in the River Plate countries. Its severely plain exterior is in striking contrast to the richly ornamented interior.

note a luster which must have been made by the use of a red earth found among the stones called by the Indians *itá ky*, or "tender earth."

At the end of the main aisle rises the magnificent retable blazing with gold, one of the most beautiful of the colonial era; the gilded carving stands out against a background decorated in greens, violets, reds, and grays. Its details harmonize with its architectural lines, the predominating style being Spanish baroque. This is also sometimes called "colonial art," from the period in which it spread through South America from Paraguay. There it was first used in religious works of art executed by the Franciscans immediately after the conquest and later by the Jesuits. For this reason the style became known as the Jesuit colonial, since it was employed in all the Jesuit



Courtesy of the Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay

#### THE HIGH ALTAR

An unusual and effective detail is the stepped arrangement of the lower section of the retable, with corresponding arches above receding to a sunburst which forms a background for a figure of the Virgin. Between the twisted columns at either side of the altar are figures of St. Bonaventure and St. Michael Archangel. The altar glows with gold and color.

reductions in South America, on church façades and in confessionals, altars, and pulpits. The especial manifestation of the Spanish baroque which predominated at the time was the florid Churrigueresque, named after the Spanish architect Churriguera, who was its chief exponent.

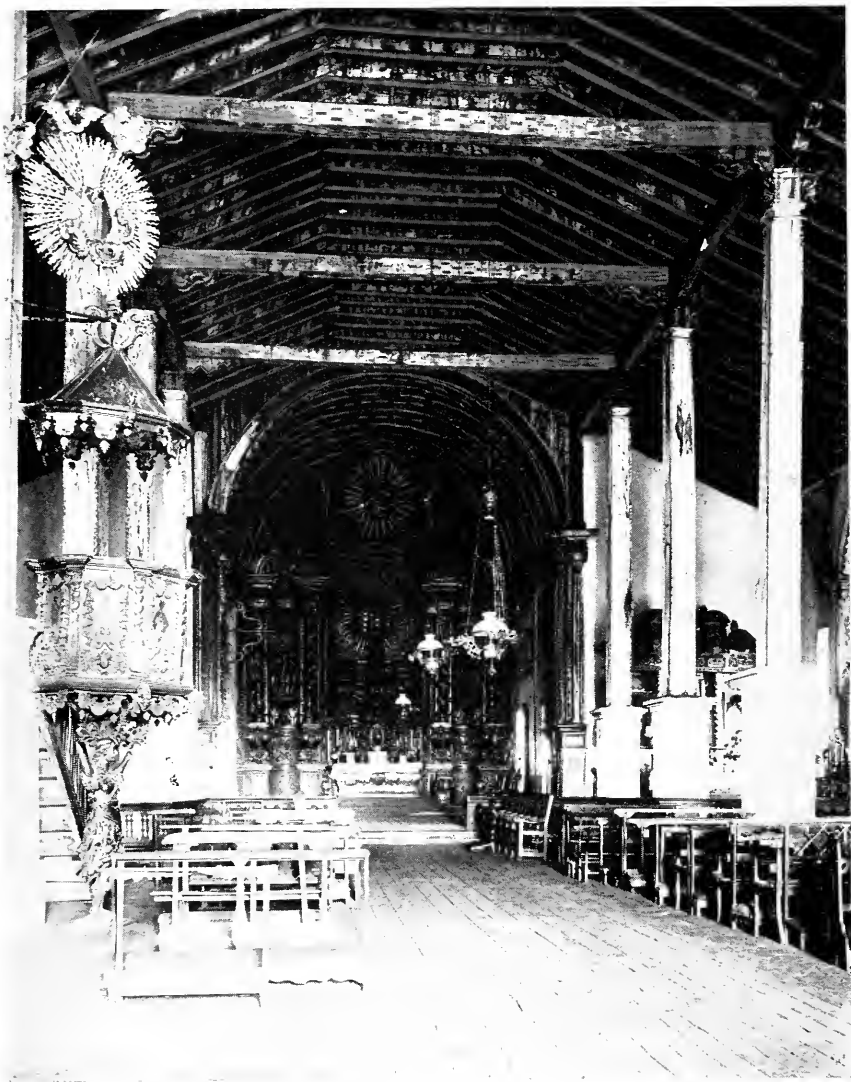
The characteristics of the Churrigueresque are its heavy ornamentation: unfolding leaves, ending in volutes fancifully placed to break the lines of cornices and thus produce a strong effect of light and shade; twisted columns, twined with garlands of fruit, flowers, and leaves in high relief and supported on heavy brackets; composite capitals and figures of saints in animated attitudes, with floating drapery, like Bernini's *Santa Teresa* in St. Peter's at Rome. These figures, placed in curved niches, shell-shaped above, are reminiscent of the Italian baroque.

In the retable of the church at Yaguaron, as well as in its other pieces of wood carvings, one may also trace influences of the Renaissance, Gothic, and plateresque styles.

This great retable produces an artistic effect especially pleasing because of the rhythm of its lines and the stepped arrangement of the lower central section, matched by the six stepped arches above, which produces an illusion of depth and thus enhances the figure of the Murillo-like Virgin placed against a sunburst of rays in relief.

At each side of the altar piece are two twisted columns, guarding niches terminating in shell effects. Here stand the figures of St. Bonaventure and St. Michael Archangel, both admirable examples of baroque figure carving, such as might be found in Spanish or Italian churches. The capitals of the columns, which are wound with garlands of roses and marguerites, support a multiple cornice. From the two center columns springs a 4-sided panel with curving sides, framing a beautiful figure in high relief of God the Father, from whose triangular nimbus spread rays of light. This panel is adorned at either side by figures of saints in flowing robes and angels surrounded by foliage. The columns rest on great brackets with heavy volutes of closely spiraled acanthus leaves in the Churrigueresque style; the base of the niche between them is plateresque in feeling. The altar, which has a curved front, is also in the plateresque style. The monstrance is enshrined in the midst of ornamental motives, clouds, and heads of delightful chubby-cheeked cherubs. Other details merge in the majestic effect of the whole.

This retable, in its marvelous harmony of line, color, and gilding, is an excellent example of the beauty and opulence characteristic of colonial religious art, a product of artists trained in Europe, as is clear from the perfection of the carving, sculpture, painting, and the whole effect. It may be added that a replica of this reredos, made in Yaguaron at the same time as the original, is found in the Church of San Francisco in Buenos Aires.



Courtesy of the Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay

#### THE NAVE

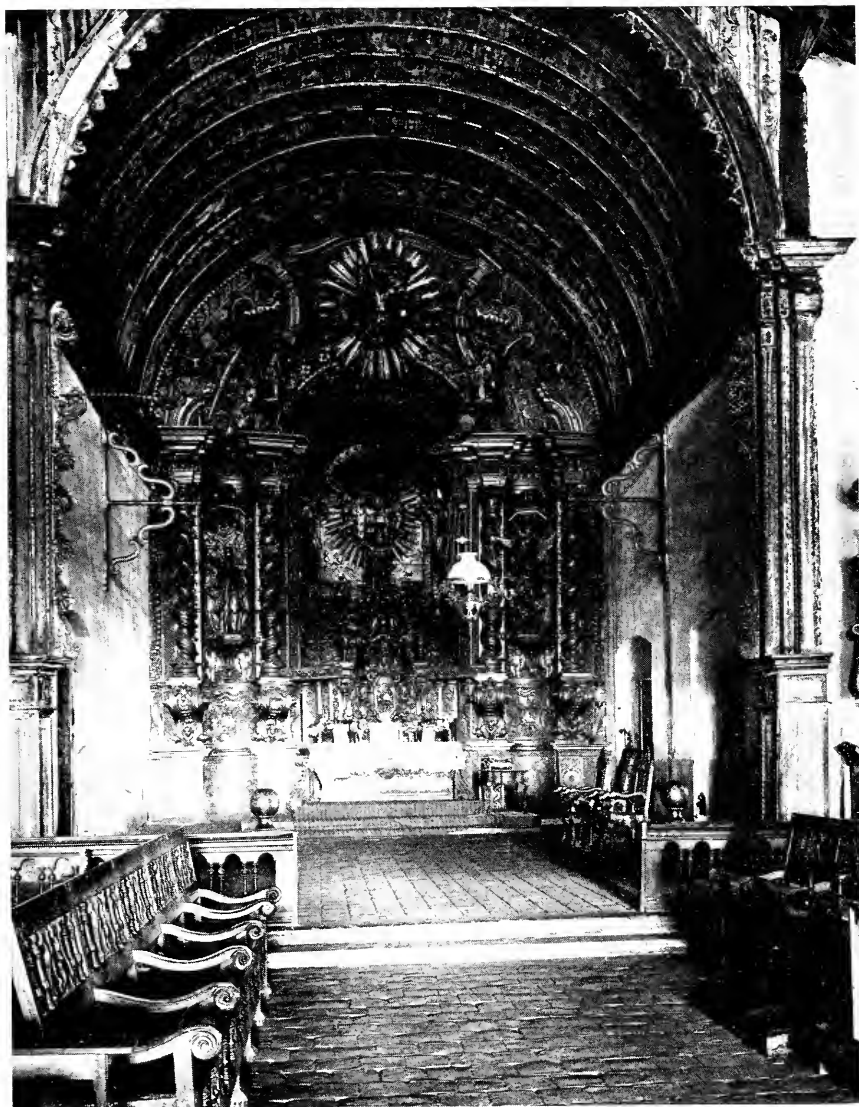
Of interest is the gilded pulpit at the left, supported by an ornately carved angel. The timbered ceiling and the supporting beams and pillars of hardwood retain much of their original brilliance of color.



Courtesy of the Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay

#### SIDE ALTARS

Details of the Church of San Roque are in complete harmony with the side altars as to design and color.



Courtesy of the Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay

#### THE CHOIR

Flowers native to Paraguay form the chief motive in the decoration of the ceiling of the church. The excellent workmanship of the woodwork and chairs warrants special mention.

The ceiling over the high altar and in the body of the church, painted in plateresque designs with native flowers as motives, recalls the Renaissance style used in Italy and Spain in the period when the church was built.

The Church of San Roque offers other interesting details in the carved altars on the right-hand side of the church, the confessionals, and the pulpit, all in harmony with the retable, as are the pillars, benches, windows, doors, fonts, and the wooden chandeliers where lamps were placed in colonial times. The gilded altars of a composite architectural style are beautifully carved in delicate rococo, with thorny dentate leaves curving in capricious forms about the three round arches and surmounting the cornice in an ornate design. A monstrance reposes in the center niche of each, while figures of saints in flowing robes occupy the side niches. The tables supporting the altars are painted and gilded in colors similar to those of the great retable.

The confessionals may be said to be completely Churrigueresque in style, because of their combinations of curves, latticework, and twisted columns, and the pedimental effect, composed of volutes, complicated curves, and leaves, above a round arch of broken outline and a double cornice.

The gilt pulpit, hexagonal in form, is extremely interesting. The beautifully carved figure of an angel, with floating robes, supports on arms and head elaborate branches of foliage, on which rests the pulpit. The panels are divided by the usual twisted pillars with capitals, first of acanthus leaves, and then of several Doric moldings, which continue over the panels in the form of a cornice. The panels are rather unusual in their combination of painting and carving. As may be seen in the illustration, a carved canopy and drapery above and at the sides frames the painted figure of a saint, while below is a cherub's head in low relief surrounded by rococo foliage.

Another exquisite work of art is the threefold altar in the sacristy. In the center niche is a beautiful and majestic image of Christ, on one side, St. John, and on the other, Our Lady of Sorrows, a figure of lovely and expressive countenance. The base on which the altar rests has a curved front, characteristic of the bureaus of the time. Like the walls and the arched ceiling of wood, it is painted and gilded in harmony with the decoration of the nave.

The armchairs and other straight chairs in the church have backs of leather richly ornamented in wavy borders, like the bishops' thrones seen in Spanish churches of the same era.

The carpentry and woodwork throughout the church are admirable. The great retable is held in place by a solid framework, 40 by 27 feet, of hardwood beams dovetailed or rabbeted together and arranged in the form of steps, with a passage at the side nearly 3 feet



wide to permit the lighting of the wooden chandeliers. Wooden pegs are used instead of nails.

The roof of the church, as may be seen in the illustration, is supported on crossbeams resting on wooden pillars, carved and painted and topped with carved capitals, extending into brackets. The pillars dividing the church into aisles are about 26 feet high, and each is made of a single piece of very hard wood.



#### A CONFESSIONAL

The gilded and painted confessionals are typically Churrigueresque, with florid ornamentation and columns twined with garlands in high relief.

Courtesy of the Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay

The windows are noteworthy for their carved wooden spindles, set into the window frame with the shutters, each of which is carved in plateresque style out of a single board.

The doors of the church are divided into 10 panels and sculptured in low relief, the wood being cut away so as to leave moldings around the edge and between the panels. These are arranged in pairs and exquisitely carved in plateresque style. Each half door is made of a single plank, 6 inches thick, and hung on wooden hinges. Even the locks are of wood.



Besides the works of art which have been described above, one finds in the church at Yaguaron some which were obviously executed after the Jesuits had left Paraguay. Their ingenuousness and primitive character proclaim that they are undoubtedly the work of Indians taught by Spanish masters. The altar at the left of the retable, for instance, is certainly a product of local artisans. In the real plateresque one finds a certain conventionalization and the use of the Greek acanthus; here, similar leaves are applied at intervals on the compound curves, but in the decoration—different for each of the three sections—carnations and other native plants are used as a finish for the design and as garlands for the twisted columns. The figures of saints in the three niches are crude as to anatomical proportions, stiff as to drapery. The cornice is simple. The curved lines of the top terminate in a scroll and little niche containing a saint.

Some small altars, armchairs, and other pieces, carved in the Indian style, were carried away from the church at the time of a fire, and still remain in private houses. These works are important in the history of Paraguayan art, since they may be said to belong to the Hispano-Guaraní style which has persisted in other manifestations.

Other remarkable altars, chiefly in the Jesuit style, although with some admixture of the plateresque and Churrigueresque, are to be found in the churches of Capiata, Piribebuy, Acahay, Tobati, and the Jesuit missions of Jesús y Trinidad, Santa Rosa, San Juan, San Ignacio, and Santa María. In all the reductions named, schools of art were established, for the Spaniards found among the Guaraní Indians a predisposition to the cultivation of art and religion which enabled them to profit by instruction. In fact, the Guaraníes already cultivated the arts in their textiles and pottery, in which they expressed by means of symbols their religion and ideology. They possessed a certain degree of civilization and a disciplined and ordered racial life.

These apt pupils, then, carried on the tradition of the Spanish masters first under the direction of the latter, and later, after the expulsion of the Jesuits, by themselves. They built churches and made altars, retables, pulpits, and other church furniture and carved images of the saints and of the Virgin. While sometimes their figure sculptures were strange in proportion and awkward in attitude and drapery, other examples have a high degree of perfection, in fine proportions, graceful drapery, and charming facial expression. These Indians, indeed, delighted in all the arts and allied trades, for they were not only sculptors but painters, masons, carpenters, ironworkers, jewelers, and excellent musicians and each one became an artificer of manifold skill.

Thus the great church of San Roque at Yaguaron is not only a splendid shrine but an embodiment of the history of ecclesiastical art in Paraguay.

# TRENDS OF IMMIGRATION IN THE AMERICAS

By WILLIAM A. REID

*Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union*

**I**F 150,000 people are born every day and if 100,000 people die every day, when will our world become overpopulated?

This estimate of births and deaths, from the calculations of E. M. East, a well-known Harvard scholar, is of timely interest. Moreover, a few years ago the rising tides of humankind evidently spurred another educator, Prof. E. A. Ross, to produce that startling book, *Standing Room Only?* And a publication of the League of Nations, referring to the deductions of its serious-minded statisticians, says that the world's population has steadily grown to more than 2,000,000,000 people. On the other hand, certain authorities point out the danger of racial suicide because some nations are showing decreasing birth rates.

An indication of public interest in the United States in the great subject of immigration or nonimmigration is the fact that the Seventy-second Congress passed eight immigration and naturalization bills. Among important proposed legislation awaiting the next Congress is "a general immigration restriction bill, which would cut existing quotas 90 per cent and establish quotas for the Western Hemisphere." It will be recalled that the immigration act of 1921 established the admission of immigrants by quota. This act was superseded by that of 1924, which in section 4, paragraph (c), excepts from quota restrictions "An immigrant who was born in the Dominion of Canada, Newfoundland, the Republic of Mexico, the Republic of Cuba, the Republic of Haiti, the Dominican Republic, the Canal Zone, or an independent country of Central or South America, and his wife, and his unmarried children under eighteen years of age, if accompanying or following to join him." A similar, although less explicitly worded, exception had been made in the act of 1921.

While migration in general in the past few years has been turned from its regular channels and in many cases compelled to mark time, there is still a perceptible human tide moving from thickly populated Old World countries toward the open spaces and less congested cities of the New World.

Perhaps it is well that migration has to pause; that colonization schemes are developing more slowly; that governments are granting concessions with more scrutinizing care. Now that the movement is

slow, there are numerous plans in evidence here and there about the Americas to meet an inflow which may be accelerated to-morrow.

Most of the American Republics need more people and welcome the right kind of newcomer, except, of course, during a depression which causes widespread unemployment. Naturally, the several nations must look after their own nationals before accepting large numbers of strangers, many of whom might become additional burdens.

South America, as a whole, possesses only about 10 inhabitants per square mile. Central America has for the same area about 45, or approximately 4 more than the United States. One Central American nation, El Salvador, has 124 people per square mile, but this density of population is low in comparison with that of England, which contains more than 600 persons per square mile.

The islands of Cuba and Java, on opposite sides of the earth, are about the same size. Both are "sugar-bowl" countries. Cuba has not quite 4,000,000 inhabitants; Java gives life and sustenance to 38,000,000.

Despite the economic depression of to-day the newly arrived settler in Latin America finds conditions in many cases far safer and more inviting than a decade ago. Trails have changed to roads and roads have evolved into modern highways. Ten years ago when a party of half a hundred immigrants bound for southern Bolivia reached the end of the railroad it was necessary for them to travel on mule back and afoot to their final destination in the wilds. Once there, nothing was ready to meet their needs. Even pure drinking water and mosquito-protected cabins were yet to be provided. But heroically they set about to clear the land, turn the soil, and raise crops. In due time some returns came, but surplus crops could not be marketed except by primitive means over long trails. Dissension and discouragement grew, and within a few years those who survived abandoned their claims. To-day a motor road pierces this region and connects it with the outside world, while the airplane soars overhead and delivers mail and light freight.

A similar isolation compelled a number of Czecho-Slovaks, who had tried farming in Guatemala, to abandon their lands. Germans in Panama did likewise because of the labor of coping with the jungle and the difficulty of getting their produce to market. But to-day a highway 300 miles long, connecting Panama City with David, passes directly by the former German settlement. Were the same Germans to try to colonize there now—8 years later—they would be far more likely to succeed. The highway banishes isolation and opens a route to outside markets.

Fours years ago Dr. Alejandro E. Bunge, the well-known Argentine economist, prepared an interesting study, entitled *Seventy Years of Argentine Immigration*. He showed that during that period 5,740,000

immigrants entered the country, and that Italians and Spaniards constituted 79.6 per cent of the arrivals. Other immigrants from non-Latin countries represented only about 15 per cent of the prospective citizens. The same study indicated that while Italians had come in the largest proportion, about 45 per cent, they had also returned in the greatest number to their mother country. This migration of Italians west and east across the Atlantic gave rise to the designation of *golondrina*, or "swallow" immigrant, so much used in southern South America.

Within the past few years, however, there has been a change, and we find a larger number of non-Latins among the immigrants to Argentina. Poles, for instance, have been arriving in South American countries at the rate of 30,000 a year, and of this number 20,000 were credited to Argentina in 1930.

Argentina's population has gradually risen to about 11,660,000, while her immigration has declined or remained practically stationary. Indeed, a few years ago, on account of economic conditions, it was thought necessary to limit the coming of immigrants, and Argentine consulates in Europe became stricter in accepting prospective settlers. "And," says Doctor Bunge, whom we have already quoted, "last year (1931) Argentina 'exported' more people than she 'imported'."

If we look backward over the decade 1921-1930 and review the compilations of the *Revista de Ciencias Económicas* of Buenos Aires, it is seen that the banner year for Argentine immigration was 1927, when 388,865 immigrants entered the Republic. Although 276,989 left the country, there was still a net gain of 111,876. In the period 1921-1929, inclusive, there were 2,428,713 arrivals, 1,580,462 departures, and a net gain of 848,251, or a yearly average of 94,250. In 1930 immigrants entering Argentina numbered 124,006, and in the first six months of 1931 there arrived 32,731.

During the year 1931 Brazil received a smaller number of immigrants than in any of the five previous years, the arrivals being only 31,410. In 1926 there were 121,569; in 1927, 101,568; in 1928, 82,061; in 1929, 100,424; and in 1930, 67,066. This makes an average entry of 94,538 persons per year. In 1931 Portuguese outnumbered all other newcomers, 8,152 having been admitted. Next in number were the Japanese, of whom 5,632 came to Brazilian shores. Fifty-four other nationalities were represented in the arrivals. Santos and Rio de Janeiro were the main ports of debarkation. During the 10-year period 1920-1929, statistics show that 58,284 Japanese entered Brazil, an average of 5,828 per year. Many have disembarked at Para, their destination being the plantations of the Japanese colonization company at Acara, in the State of Para, known as the Fukihara Concession. The birth of many children swells the Japanese population.

From Lisbon comes the news that during the early part of 1932 some 700 Portuguese returned to their native land from Brazil, owing to the fact that Brazilian decrees of last year and the year before stipulate that two-thirds of the workers in industrial establishments must be Brazilian citizens. The same dispatch states that while 188,874 Portuguese emigrated to Brazil during the past five years, 108,660 returned in the same period.

For many years only a small current of immigration has set toward Chile. A news dispatch from Valparaiso in December, 1915, stated that from 1905 to 1914, 25,544 immigrants, or about 2,500 a year, arrived in Chile. Statistics for the decade 1920-1929 indicate, however, that Chilean immigration exceeded emigration by about 40,000, or an average of nearly 4,000 a year. In 1929 a special effort to secure settlers was made by Chilean consuls in Germany, in accordance with colonization plans of the Government, and about 140 families were recruited and sent to Chile as immigrants. The Government had anticipated their arrival by erecting a number of bungalows on public lands in the region of Peñaflor, 10 miles or more from Santiago. The colonists found not only comfortable homes but other conveniences of modern living. Each family was allotted a small area and granted 10 years within which to raise stock and crops and reimburse the Government for the land and for other expenses. This is said to be the first systematic attempt in recent years to induce European settlers to come to Chile.

A few years ago, when several of the political divisions of that Republic were altered, a Government decree was issued with a view to encouraging the return of many Chileans, 120,000 of whom, it was estimated, were living in other countries, particularly in Argentina. Most of this colonization land was in the newly created Territory of Aysen, southern Chile. More than a million acres of land in the Island of Chiloe were also set aside for settlement.

Commenting on the Chilean immigration problem, an editorial of March 20, 1928, in *La Nación* of Santiago, said, among other things: "It is indispensable to set ourselves an immigration goal. There is no difficulty in figuring out the number of immigrants that it would be necessary to bring to our shores for the purpose of maintaining a growth proportionate to that of Argentina's population. Starting with our 12 per thousand natural increase, we must obtain an additional 15 or 16 per thousand to reach the same percentage of growth obtaining in the case of Argentina. Considering our present population of four millions, we come to 60,000 as our yearly immigration requirement. This should be the aim of our immigration policy, for such an increase is a vital requirement of national life."

Immigration into Colombia is regulated by the general laws on the subject enacted in 1920 and 1922, respectively. Under article 1 of

the first-mentioned law it is stated: "Except as otherwise herein provided, the territory of Colombia is open to all foreigners." The exceptions generally concern public health, order, and morals. This law provides that the Government encourage the coming of settlers "if their object is to cultivate the land, establish new industries, or improve existing industries." . . . "Colombia needs more civilized and progressive people." Immigration boards at the ports of entry are authorized to grant certain special customs concessions.

Immigrants entering Colombia are divided into two classes: (1) Individuals who enter the country as laborers or journeymen, and (2) business men who enter with the intention of establishing arts or industries. Those embraced in the first class are not obliged to fulfill any requirement as to their pecuniary capacity; those in the second class must possess resources of not less than \$200. The immigrant must present his passport to the immigration board which operates in each port of the Republic and at each frontier city where an immigration office is maintained.

An act of December 18, 1931, establishes a quota for immigrants of certain nationalities. In 1932 only 10 persons may enter from each of the following countries: Bulgaria, China, Greece, India, Lebanon, Lithuania, Poland, Palestine, Rumania, Russia, Syria, Turkey, and Yugoslavia.

The 174,221 immigrants who entered Cuba in 1920 composed the largest number ever received there in any one year. According to a compilation appearing in the January, 1932, issue of the *Revista Internacional del Trabajo*, Madrid, a publication of the League of Nations, 108,176 immigrants arrived during the 4-year period 1926-1929, or an average of about 27,000 a year. Each of the above-mentioned years shows a gradual decrease—from 32,269 arrivals in 1926 to 17,179 in 1929. Another report indicates that these immigrants came from a great diversity of nationalities. Spaniards headed the list, followed in number by Poles, Portuguese, Russians, Germans, Greeks, and citizens of almost 50 other countries. It is also to be noted that there has been a decided falling off within recent years of Haitian and Jamaican laborers who are temporarily imported for work in the sugarcane fields.

In 1930 only 12,219 immigrants arrived; this is the smallest number recorded in the history of the Republic, but it is thought that when figures are given out for 1931 the total will be still lower than in the previous year. Haitians led in 1930 immigration with 5,126 arrivals, followed by Spaniards to the number of 4,243. There were 332 Polish immigrants. "The invasion of the Poles," as a Cuban source phrases it, took place in 1924 with the entry of 2,554 persons of that nationality; since that year the general trend of Polish immigration has been downward.

Opportunities for the settler in Ecuador are in some ways more inviting than formerly. Speaking of conditions of four years ago, a well-known Ecuadorean official said: "It is imperative for the farmer in Ecuador to be near a railroad or good highway in order to market his wheat, corn, meat, or dairy products. Without roads, colonists would find it impossible to obtain the necessities of life; they could not obtain funds to carry on work, since their products call for modern transportation. This does not exist generally in Ecuador. For these reasons it would be a mistake to colonize unpopulated regions of Ecuador at present." To-day, however, several hundred miles of new motor highways are in operation. For instance, that long stretch from Babahoyo (a town 50 miles by steamer from Guayaquil) through the lowlands, up the western slopes of the Andes, and thence northward via Quito to the Colombian border at Rumichaca, opens several virgin regions of Ecuador and places prospective farmers within comparatively easy reach of consuming markets.

The United States census of 1930 shows that at that time there were in the United States 1,422,533 Mexicans; of these 758,674 were males and 633,859 females. Texas had nearly 700,000; California, 368,000.

Among those who have given serious study to United States-Mexican immigration and emigration problems is Prof. Paul S. Taylor, of the University of California. We quote from the fourth report of this authority as it appeared in the *New York Times* in July of the present year: "A survey of the employment rolls of 16 railroads in the maintenance-of-way department shows that the number of Mexicans increased from 206 in 1916 to 5,255 in 1926, and then decreased to 3,963 in 1928, when the survey was made. In 15 industrial plants the number of Mexicans employed increased from 1 in 1913 to 7,050 in 1928. From an investigation of 2,016 Mexicans in four large industrial plants it appears that more than 69 per cent of them have arrived in the district since 1923." Professor Taylor points out that the Mexicans have not taken jobs away from native-born white men, but have replaced immigrants who formerly came in great numbers from European countries. In two large steel plants he found that the percentage of Mexicans increased from zero to 9.4 per cent between 1912 and 1926.

The Mexican Government has assisted in repatriating nearly 200,000 laborers from the United States from 1930 to the present, the number returning between January and May of this year having been 36,000. During the last-mentioned period, about 4,000 tourists visited Mexico and 2,736 immigrants were admitted.

A Mexican news release of August 23, 1932, quotes the following statement from the Department of the Interior: "The Mexican

Government permits entry only to persons fulfilling all requirements of the immigration act." Further discussion of the attitude of the Mexican Government toward immigration is found on pages 735-737 of this issue.

Numerous attempts to plant colonies in eastern Peru were made before the advent of modern roads and also before regular airplane services were in operation between Tarma and Iquitos. Both of these agencies have a powerful influence on the new settler. Distance from centers of population and the slowness of trail transportation of products to market had proved to be barriers to success. But within the past five years, aided by motor and air transport, the pioneers in this part of Peru seem to be better satisfied and are really attaining some degree of success.

In 1928 a Polish company acquired 2,470,000 acres of land in the Cepa region, and shortly thereafter 140 immigrants arrived from Warsaw at the expense of the Peruvian Government. But in April, 1932, the concession was declared canceled on account of the company's inability to bring the required number of settlers. The original arrivals, however, are reported to be holding on and anticipating success in their new field.

The American Consul General at Callao, Peru, reporting on immigration matters under date of May 15, 1930, said: "The first important contingent of immigrants to arrive in Peru in recent years reached Callao a few months ago. The party consisted of approximately 350 Russians and 100 Austrians. Their passages were paid by the Peruvian Government. These immigrants have been sent into the interior of the country to colonize Government lands."

If the stranger arriving in Peru wanders about the streets of Callao and Lima he is likely to be surprised at the large number of Chinese and Japanese who are engaged in all branches of commerce. More than 20,000 Japanese are already in this and other districts of the Republic. "And," says *La Prensa* of Lima, "they have practically monopolized all the smaller industries. A large percentage of the grocery and meat stores, restaurants, and bars is run by them. The Nipponese, like their cousins of the Celestial Empire, can subsist on very little, and generally do. They not only hire out for low wages, but storekeepers among them undersell their competitors. Peruvian trade-unions are making a strong drive for restricted immigration." . . .

Uruguay received immigrants at the rate of about 12,600 a year from 1921 to 1930, inclusive. In 1928 the number dropped to 3,570 and in 1929 to 2,797, but in 1930 those entering the country numbered 18,116. Spaniards headed the list with 3,389, followed by 2,424 Rumanians, 2,125 Poles, and 1,760 Italians, according to the *Diario Oficial* of March 16, 1931.



Since the inrush of immigrant labor, drawn to Venezuela by reason of the enormous petroleum development in the Maracaibo region, there has been a decided drop in arrivals. During the 5-year period from 1918 to 1922 the annual inflow averaged 11,883. After that time, according to available statistics, new immigrants reached Venezuela at the rate of about 3,000 a year, but in 1930 immigrants numbered 62,621 and 61,408 persons emigrated elsewhere, leaving the excess of arrivals over departures at the low figure of 1,213. The curtailment of oil production has sent many laborers to rural districts, and some have left the country.

In conclusion, it should be added that some of the Latin American countries appear to have published little or nothing during the past few years on immigration and emigration. Moreover, numerous discrepancies in figures were found everywhere statistics were presented. One of the most satisfactory sources for data was the monthly *Record of Migration* of the League of Nations, but this excellent journal ceased publication with the December, 1928, issue. This article, therefore, lacks many facts that might add to its interest. It is to be noted, however, that the current of prospective settlers from European countries to Central and South America is considerably smaller than during several pre-war years; that "selective immigration" is being given more attention than formerly; and that several countries, including Panama and Colombia, have put sharp restrictions into effect. On the other hand, as has been stated, the immigration authorities and concessionaires are now providing in advance of immigrant arrivals certain primary requisites and comforts. Another factor of vital importance to the progress and contentment of the newcomer in any rural district is the gradually lengthening highway, which provides an outlet for his products; the radio, which helps to supply diversion at the trading posts where colonists are wont to gather; and even the airplane, which drops letters and papers at many an isolated settlement. Indeed, the standard of living seems to be rising in the virgin solitudes of the Americas

# FERMÍN TANGÜIS FATHER OF PERUVIAN COTTON

By JOSÉ L. COLOM

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A SHORT time ago there died in Peru Fermín Tangüis, a man who will long be remembered among the cotton growers of that country. It was from the experimental and selective breeding of cotton on his plantation in the Pisco Valley that he produced the wilt-resistant variety, known since as Tangüis, which proved such a boon to the cotton industry and thus to Peruvian economic conditions in general. Few men have been able, like Tangüis, to add millions of dollars a year to their adopted country's wealth. Born in Puerto Rico, this successful agriculturalist commenced his life in Peru as a miner.

Cotton wilt has for a long time been well known in the United States. It was introduced into Peru by means of varieties of cotton sent from the former country for experimental planting. About 25 years ago it became a menace to the entire cotton industry of Peru because of its quick-spreading tendencies. Wilt is caused by a fungus known scientifically as *Fusarium vasinfectum*, a microscopic plant living in the ground upon various forms of organic matter. Its only known living host is the cotton plant, into the sap stream of which it penetrates by way of the roots. It is able to live in the soil for as long as five years without the presence of any growing cotton.

Fermín Tangüis, an intelligent and industrious planter of Pisco, soon discovered that the only effective means of combating the disease was by evolving a variety of cotton which would be resistant to the wilt. By carefully selecting the healthiest plants from several types which he was growing (thought to have been an Egyptian type, such as the Mitafifi, and one of the short-stapled upland varieties) and planting only the seeds from these, after several generations of cross breeding he was able to claim a new hybrid variety which was entirely resistant to wilt. Having produced it, Mr. Tangüis protected it by means of careful selection of seed and by eliminating all plants which bore characteristics differing from those of the one now called by him the "Standard" or "Special" type. He himself said that so different and distinct was his special cotton that after the second year the workmen recognized it easily. After the fifth year he began selling seed to the farmers of Pisco Valley, whence the variety soon spread to all of the cotton-growing valleys of southern coastal Peru. By 1927 it constituted 60 per cent of the entire cotton crop of Peru.

Some idea of the importance of this crop may be gathered from the fact that in the year mentioned Peru exported 57,116 metric tons of cotton valued at nearly \$25,280,000.

While Fermín Tangüis was interested mainly in the wilt-resistant quality of his new plant, he was foresighted enough to preserve, wherever possible, plants having other advantages. As a result, the Tangüis cotton yields well in practically any type of Peruvian soil, produces three to four stubble crops (that is, from the same roots) on a commercial basis without incurring marked decreases in the second and third stubble crops as with the *Egipto*, and yields 40 to 42 per cent of lint, as against 33 per cent for the *Egipto*. In addition, its fibers are highly uniform in length, lending themselves to easy classification and being readily distinguishable from all other varieties. The quality and whiteness of the fiber are superior to those of any other Peruvian cotton, and the best Tangüis cotton, bearing the mark "Superfine," is eagerly sought on the British and other European markets. Because of the whiteness and woolly consistency of the lint it lends itself to mixture with wool for manufacturing purposes.

Unfortunately, the wonderful results achieved by Fermín Tangüis were not preserved undiminished by the cotton growers of Peru. By 1926 it became apparent that the breed was deteriorating, this being apparent from the greater variation in the length of its fiber, as well as differences in its color, luster, and resistance. The chief cause for this lay in the laxity or complete abandonment of the practice of seed selection. Since cotton crossbreeds rapidly, so that nearly 10 per cent of every crop grown from pure seeds is hybrid, it is seen how necessary a constant selection of plants of the original breed becomes. This was not followed in Peru. Tangüis cotton, too, was found to be very susceptible to environmental changes, these being noticeable chiefly in the fiber. Fortunately, the problem of improving the Tangüis cotton was taken up by the Planters' Association of Cañete, which some years ago established an experiment station in that valley. Its principal object was to produce improved types of



FERMÍN TANGÜIS

Who died August 24, 1932.

cotton and pure and selected seeds of such types. This work has been proceeding with a fair degree of success.

Perhaps more important still was the announcement in 1928 by Dr. E. V. Abbott, plant pathologist of the experiment station maintained by the National Agricultural Association, that he had discovered the rather widespread prevalence of wilt in Tangüis cotton growing in several valleys around Lima. This exploded the former belief that this variety was immune. Doctor Abbott gave as possible explanations the degeneration of the variety due to lack of seed selection and the gradual adaptation of the wilt-producing fungus to the Tangüis variety. He gave the following three ways of combating wilt: (1) Development of a resistant variety; (2) suppression of the development of the fungus in the soil by the use of a green manure; (3) crop rotation. After discussing the last two and calling them at best expedients, Doctor Abbott offered the rebuilding of a wilt-resistant variety as the only real method for preventing the recurrence of wilt.

In this way it has been shown how the very qualities which made of Tangüis cotton a salvation to Peruvian growers were almost lost through their neglect and carelessness. But Peruvians have not forgotten the way out of their difficulty that was shown by the pioneer, Fermín Tangüis, and are attacking cotton wilt and varietal degeneration in the same manner that he so effectively employed.

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## UNITED STATES TRADE WITH LATIN AMERICA, FISCAL YEAR 1931-32

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

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UNITED STATES trade with Latin America during the past fiscal year, ended June 30, continued to suffer from the world-wide depression which began in the fall of 1929. Further reduction in commodity prices and decline in the output of finished manufactures were the leading factors in the trade decline during 1931-32.

The total trade of the United States with the 20 Latin American Republics for the fiscal year 1931-32, amounting to \$632,726,000, compared with a similar trade in 1930-31, valued at \$999,673,000, showed a decline of \$366,947,000, or 36.7 per cent. Imports as well as exports recorded a decrease as compared with the preceding fiscal year. Imports, amounting to \$404,802,000, declined by \$130,939,000, or 24.4 per cent, and exports, totaling \$227,924,000, decreased by \$236,008,000, or 50.8 per cent.

From the northern group of countries imports in 1931-32, amounting to \$151,178,000, showed a decline compared with 1930-31 of \$42,303,000, or 21.8 per cent. Imports from South America, aggregating \$253,624,000, declined by \$88,636,000, or 25.8 per cent.

Exports in 1931-32 to the Republics of North America, valued at \$118,106,000, showed a falling off of \$100,353,000, or 45.9 per cent, compared with the preceding fiscal year, while exports to South America, totaling \$109,818,000, declined by \$135,655,000, or 55.2 per cent.

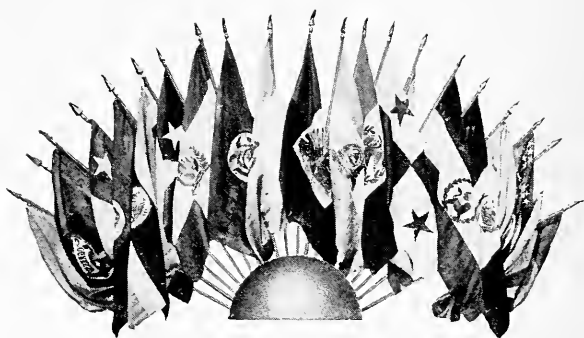
The following table, compiled from reports of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce, shows the trade of the United States with Latin America during the past two fiscal years. In addition to the trade with each country, totals are shown for the Republics of North America, the South American Republics, and all Latin America, respectively.

*Trade of the United States with Latin America, 12 months ended June 30*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	Imports		Exports		Total trade	
	1931	1932	1931	1932	1931	1932
Mexico.....	59,238	42,273	85,265	35,148	144,503	77,421
Guatemala.....	5,741	3,776	6,168	3,643	11,909	7,419
El Salvador.....	2,924	647	3,854	2,633	6,778	3,280
Honduras.....	11,722	10,473	7,095	5,539	18,817	16,012
Nicaragua.....	2,627	1,871	4,085	2,781	6,712	4,652
Costa Rica.....	4,329	3,350	4,122	2,930	8,451	6,280
Panama.....	4,860	3,799	28,227	19,019	33,087	22,818
Cuba.....	96,780	79,032	66,017	36,318	162,797	115,350
Dominican Republic.....	4,541	5,171	7,760	5,560	12,301	10,731
Haiti.....	719	786	5,866	4,535	6,585	5,321
North American Republics.....	193,481	151,178	218,459	118,106	411,940	269,284
Argentina.....	35,409	28,864	88,814	37,231	124,223	66,095
Bolivia <sup>1</sup> .....	107	29	2,690	1,249	2,797	1,278
Brazil.....	120,707	98,397	37,745	27,617	158,452	126,014
Chile.....	43,432	25,004	38,077	7,929	81,509	32,933
Colombia.....	84,306	69,182	22,449	10,581	106,755	79,763
Ecuador.....	4,719	3,024	3,975	2,048	8,694	5,072
Paraguay <sup>1</sup> .....	228	68	905	394	1,133	462
Peru.....	13,385	5,466	10,598	5,930	23,983	11,396
Uruguay.....	5,210	2,763	16,422	5,010	21,632	7,773
Venezuela.....	34,757	20,827	23,798	11,829	58,555	32,656
South American Republics.....	342,260	253,624	245,473	109,818	587,733	363,442
Total Latin America.....	535,741	404,802	463,932	227,924	999,673	632,726

<sup>1</sup> United States statistics credit commodities in considerable quantities imported from and exported to Bolivia and Paraguay via ports situated in neighboring countries, not to the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay, but to the countries in which the ports of departure or entry are located.



## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*Books on Ecuador.*—The Pan American Union has been informed by the Consul of Ecuador in Seattle, Wash., that he has recently made connections in Ecuador which will enable him to supply books on that country to librarians and students who may desire them.

*Book catalogues.*—Two books of special interest to bibliographers have been received during the past month. One is a catalogue of the library of the School of Sciences of the University of Buenos Aires and the other a semiannual bulletin of the National Library of Brazil. This last is in the nature of a national bibliography of recent books and, in addition to full entry of author, title, and publishers, includes the price of many of the items. Both of these publications are listed in detail elsewhere in these notes.

*A special American library.*—The Argentine National Library in Buenos Aires is reported to be establishing a special American library, which is being catalogued and classified as a section of the main library. So far over 20,000 catalogue cards have been completed. In an effort to make the collection as extensive as possible, lists have been prepared of the books by each American author now in the library. These lists were submitted to the authors with a request for contributions of additional books to the collection, with the result that great interest has been created in developing the section. A brief history of the Argentine National Library is found on page 681 ff. of this issue.

Since the last report in the BULLETIN the library has added 363 volumes and pamphlets to its shelves. Among the books received during the past month are specially noted the following:

*Manual del cafetero colombiano.* Federación Nacional de Cafeteros. Bogotá, Litografía Colombia, 1932. 399 p. 12°.

*Prontuario de jurisprudencia criminal correspondiente a los años de 1909 al 1912*; sentencias del tribunal supremo de la República de Cuba. Extractadas y compiladas por Diego Vicente Tejera (hijo). 1ª. edición. Habana, Jesús Montero, editor, 1932. 419 p. 8°. Biblioteca Jurídica de Autores Cubanos y Extranjeros, vol. 6.

*El divorcio (Cuba)*. Ley de 6 de febrero de 1930 y toda la jurisprudencia (1918-1932). El divorcio y los extranjeros; el divorcio en España; formulario de demanda; formulario de recurso de casación. Por el Dr. Raúl López Castillo. 1ª. edición. Habana, Jesús Montero, editor, 1932. 223 p. 8°. Biblioteca Jurídica de Autores Cubanos y Extranjeros, vol. 7.

*Bulletin de la commune de Port-au-Prince*. Port-au-Prince, Imprimerie du Service National de l'Enseignement Professionnel, 1932. 70 p. illus. 8°.

*Problemas urbanos*. Tráfico y transportes. Por Raúl Lerena-Acevedo. Montevideo, Imprenta Uruguaya, S. A., 1932. 118 p. 8°.

*Biografía de don Juan Nepomuceno Fernández Lindo*, presentada al concurso literario abierto por el poder ejecutivo por acuerdo de 13 de junio de 1930. [Por] Rómulo E. Durón. Tegucigalpa, Tipografía Nacional, 1932. 122 p. 8°.

*Bocetos dantescos*. [Por] Fausto Merino Correa. México, Ediciones Botas, 1929. 205 p. 12°.

*Versos y prosas líricas*. Por Luis Enrique Antolínez. Temas científicos, educativos e históricos. Por Daniel Martínez. Bucaramanga, Imprenta del Departamento, 1932. 196 p. 8°. Biblioteca Santander, vol. 2.

*Escritos de don Pedro Fernández Madrid*. Publicados con noticias sobre su vida y su época. Por Raimundo Rivas. Tomo 1. Bogotá, Editorial Minerva, 1932. 599 p. 8°.

*Imagen: Poemas*. Por Fernando Díez de Medina. La Paz, Editorial "América," 1932. 96 p. 12°.

*Catálogo de la biblioteca de la Facultad de Ciencias Exactas, Físicas y Naturales*. Serie A, publicación No. 6. Universidad de Buenos Aires. Buenos Aires, Imprenta de la Universidad, 1930-31. 1359 p. 8°.

*Anuario de Entre Ríos* (1ª. edición). Gran guía general. . . . Paraná, Argentina, J. O. Cavalli, director, 1932. 72, 263 p. 4°.

*Boletim bibliografico da Biblioteca Nacional*: Obras recebidas por contribuição legal no 1º semestre de 1931. (Separata do Boletim do Ministerio da Educação e Saúde Pública.) Rio de Janeiro, Oficinas Gráficas da Inspectoria de Demografia Sanitaria do D. N. S. P. 32 p. 8°.

New magazines received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

*Gaceta jurídica trimestral*. Dr. Amenodoro Rangel L. and Dr. Luis Loreto, directores, San Cristóbal, Venezuela. (Quarterly.) Año 1, No. 1, julio-septiembre, 1932. 74 pages. 6¾ by 9¾ inches. Price, 16 bolívares per year.

*Revista de identificación y asuntos generales*. Órgano de la Secretaría de Gobernación, Habana, Cuba. Año 1, No. 1, mayo, 1932. 83 pages. illus. 7 by 10¼ inches.

*The Central American News*. Published weekly by Inter Latin News Service, F. Lehman, editor, Guatemala City, Guatemala. (Weekly.) Vol. 1, No. 3, August 7, 1932. 8 pages. 11¾ by 18 inches. (In English, Spanish, and German.) Price, 10 cents per copy.

SIXTH CONFERENCE (HAVANA 1922)		ARGENTINA	BOLIVIA	BRAZIL	CHILE	COLOMBIA	COSTA RICA	CUBA	DOMINICAN REPUBLIC	ECUADOR	EL SALVADOR	GUATEMALA	HAITI	HONDURAS	MEXICO	NICARAGUA	PANAMA	PARAGUAY	PERU	UNITED STATES	URUGUAY	VENEZUELA
1. Status of aliens				RD		R						RD			RD	RD	RD			RD		
2. Asylum				RD		R		RD	RD			RD			RD	RD	RD			NS		
3. Consular agents				RD		R		RD	RD			NS			RD	RD	RD			RD		
4. Diplomatic officers				RD				RD	RD			NS			RD	RD	RD					
5. Maritime neutrality				RD				RD	RD			NS			RD	RD	RD					RD
6. Rights and duties of states in the event of civil strife		RD		RD		R			RD			NS			RD	RD	RD			RD		
7. Treaties			RD						RD		NS	NS				RD	RD					
8. Commercial aviation												RD			RD	RD	RD			RD		
9. Literary and artistic property												RD				RD						NS
10. Private international law			RD	RD			RD	RD	RD		RD	RD	RD	RD		RD	RD		RD	NS		RD
11. Pan American Union			RD						RD			RD			RD	RD	RD			RD		
CONFERENCE ON CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION (WASHINGTON 1928-29)																						
12. Inter-American conciliation		NS		RD	RD	R		RD				RD			RD		R			RD		
13. Inter-American arbitration		NS		RD	RD			RD	RD			RD	RD		RD	RD	R					
14. Progressive arbitration (Protocol)		NS			RD			R	RD			RD	RD		R	RD						
TRADE MARK CONFERENCE (WASHINGTON 1929)																						
15. Trade mark and commercial protection		NS						RD				NS	RD	RD						RD		
16. Inter-American registration of trade marks (Protocol)		NS			NS			RD				NS	NS	RD						RD	NS	
KEY: R: Ratification RD: Ratification Deposited NS: Not signed																						

# PAN AMERICAN TREATIES AND CONVENTIONS

This chart shows the status of the treaties and conventions signed at the Sixth International Conference of American States and at other conferences held in conformity with its resolutions. Revised to September 15, 1932, according to data available at the Pan American Union.



# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

## AGRICULTURE

*Argentina improves its hog breeds.*—Indicative of the way in which the swine industry of ARGENTINA is assiduously cultivating its breeds was the organization of an exposition train of pedigreed hogs by the *Asociación Argentina de Criadores de Cerdos*, which, with the cooperation of the national and provincial Ministries of Agriculture and the Pacific Railway, recently toured the Province of Buenos Aires. Upon arrival at certain towns, where the pig raisers of the surrounding districts had already congregated, experts delivered lectures on the various swine diseases and their prevention and cure, and followed them by practical demonstrations of the methods discussed. Moving pictures illustrating various phases of the swine industry were also shown and books and pamphlets on hog breeding distributed among the audience. This was followed by a sale of pedigreed hogs for breeding purposes.

The Province of Buenos Aires is the region of Argentina in which the breeding of hogs has made the most progress, having within its borders almost one-half the hogs in the country. According to the national livestock census of July 1, 1930, Argentina had then 3,768,738 hogs, as compared with 1,436,638 in 1922, 2,900,585 in 1914, 1,405,591 in 1908, and 652,766 in 1895. The breeds most commonly found are the Duroc-Jersey, the Berkshire, and the Poland China, the 1930 census showing 1,073,992, 719,875, and 500,579 hogs for each of these breeds, respectively.

As may be deduced from the above figures, the rearing of swine in Argentina has not made as rapid progress as the favorable natural factors of the country, such as the abundance of grain for feed, would seem to warrant. Despite the emphasis which has been placed upon the industry during the last decade, the number of hogs is very small when compared with the large flocks of sheep and cattle.<sup>1</sup> Unlike the situation in the United States, about 80 per cent of the large annual Argentine corn crop is exported, and it has been suggested by the press and the breeders' association that a larger percentage should be fed to the hogs on the farms and thus converted into pork for export. This argument gains weight when the price of corn falls as it has in recent years.

An unusually large corn crop was produced in Argentina last year, exports increasing from 4,670,309 metric tons, valued at 107,025,561 gold pesos, in 1930 to 9,767,201 metric tons, valued at 169,259,858

<sup>1</sup> The number of sheep and cattle, according to the last census, was 44,413,221 and 32,211,855, respectively.

gold pesos, in 1931. Prices were low, and, as may be seen from the above figures, the larger returns were due to the larger quantities exported rather than to the profit per ton. The increase in exports was due to a stronger demand for corn in Europe, and it has been argued that "inasmuch as a large part of Argentina's corn crop goes directly to the Continent as food for swine which are slaughtered for local consumption and for exportation to other countries, such as Great Britain, it is believed that it would be highly desirable to eliminate this step and to achieve the same operation within Argentina itself."<sup>2</sup>

Hogs produced in Argentina are sold chiefly to the packing plants and slaughterhouses located in Buenos Aires and the surrounding region. Of the hogs slaughtered, the domestic market takes the largest share; for example, of the 31,985 tons of pork produced last year, 19,953 tons were produced for the domestic market and 12,032 destined for export. It is believed, however, that if there were any increase in the production of hogs Argentina would have to look abroad for a market. The domestic market is not large and there is no possibility of increasing it in the immediate future. The people of Argentina prefer beef to pork, as shown by the per capita consumption of meat in Buenos Aires during 1930, which was as follows: Beef, 109 kilograms; mutton, 11 kilograms; pork, 14 kilograms. One reason why pork is not more widely consumed is financial, for in the local markets the price is approximately 50 per cent higher per kilogram than that of similar cuts of beef or mutton.

As in the case of beef and mutton, the United Kingdom is Argentina's principal export market for pork and pork products, with Italy, Belgium, and the Netherlands the next most important consumers. The annual requirements for pork and pork products in the United Kingdom are greater than those for chilled beef and mutton. Should the Argentine swine industry develop to a point where the export trade in pork is an important item in the foreign trade of the country, it is hoped that that nation would be the principal foreign market. Argentina's competitors in this trade would be Denmark, the United States, and Canada.

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## FINANCIAL MEASURES TAKEN BY COLOMBIA TO MEET THE ECONOMIC CRISIS

The last few years have seen COLOMBIA pass through one of the most critical periods in its economic history. The prevailing depression in the world at large could not help but be strongly reflected there, as it has been in the other Latin American Republics. Although

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<sup>2</sup> *The Swine Industry in Argentina*, by John C. Shillock, "Comments on Argentine Trade," Buenos Aires, December, 1931.

Colombia is rich in natural resources, its economic welfare depends to a large extent upon coffee, the principal export product, representing about 60 per cent of the total value of the country's exports. Petroleum and bananas are also important exports; but since these two products are controlled by foreign companies, their exportation affects the trade balance and the international exchange position of Colombia to a lesser degree than export statistics would indicate.

Since coffee prices are responsive to changes in world prosperity and adversity, the value of the coffee exported from Colombia during the last three years has fallen sharply. The decline is due not to overproduction, since Colombia finds no difficulty in disposing of her product—which is of the so-called “mild” variety and used chiefly for blending—but primarily to the general decline in coffee prices in sympathy with the decline in the prices of most agricultural commodities.

A diminution in the proceeds from the sale of the Colombian coffee crop abroad is reflected in all phases of the economic life of the country. For one thing, it means less gold with which to pay for the manufactured articles the country must purchase abroad, so that such imports must be restricted. Since a large share of the nation's ordinary revenues is derived from customs duties, therefore a decrease in the price of coffee means also a curtailment of Government revenues and a subsequent lessening of the Government's capacity to meet its current expenditures and the service on its public debt.

This, however, was not the only nor the most important effect of the depression upon economic conditions in Colombia. From 1925 to 1929 Colombia borrowed heavily abroad, chiefly for the construction of public works. This expansion in public works construction produced a strong demand for labor, which in turn led to an increase in wages and domestic purchasing power and in general to the creation of an abnormal state of prosperity. The depression caused a stoppage in the flow of international credit, and the cessation of foreign loans to Colombia meant that the ambitious plan of public works construction which the country had started must be discontinued. The result was declining wages, unemployment, and a general contraction in all economic activities.

Of the depression years, 1931 was perhaps the most difficult for Colombia. During that year the clouds of the world storm gathered and burst over Europe with such fury as to shake the economic structure of the most powerful nations to their foundations. These events made themselves felt in Colombia in the form of an abrupt cancellation of the credit which for many years foreign commercial banks had granted to Colombian banks. The panic which this created in Colombian financial and commercial circles in turn caused the flight of capital from the country in such proportions as to cut

in half the gold reserves of the Bank of the Republic. This loss of gold not only endangered the stability of the peso and caused a contraction of the currency, but created a great credit stringency.

Faced with this situation, the Colombian Congress, in accordance with its constitutional prerogatives, invested President Olaya Herrera with extraordinary powers to enact such emergency financial and economic measures as should be necessary to meet the crisis through which the country was passing.<sup>1</sup> The President exercised these extraordinary powers from September 24, 1931, to July 31, 1932. During the last sessions of Congress their duration was extended for another year.

The decrees issued by President Olaya Herrera during this critical period of Colombia's history were intended to meet pressing emergencies in which hesitation on the part of the administration would have compromised the future of the country. The Minister of Finance, Sr. Esteban Jaramillo, presented a report this year, from which the following information is largely drawn, in which he states:

It would be absurd and puerile to maintain that the measures which have been adopted are a panacea which will transform, as if by magic, a situation of profound economic uneasiness into a state of confidence and well-being, or even to claim that they are not open to more or less well-founded objections and criticism. The intervention of the State in the national economy of a country, when this step is indispensable as a measure of protection for the public weal, can not be accomplished in a perfect and unobjectionable manner, for the very reason that, in order to bring it to pass, individual interests must be affected, systems hallowed by tradition abandoned, and many a legal status and existing situation modified, because their continuance would make defensive action impossible. In the struggle between public and private interest we must always expect resistance and protest from the latter. On the other hand, measures like those we have had to adopt in this time of crisis are frequently the result of choice, not between a good thing and a better one but between lesser and a greater evil, a fact which makes such measures more vulnerable to criticism.<sup>2</sup>

#### CONTROL OF EXPORTS AND FOREIGN EXCHANGE

As long as the decrease in the gold reserves of the nation did not assume alarming proportions, Colombia maintained itself within what may be termed the classical form of the gold standard; that is, there were no restrictions upon the trade in or the circulation of gold, and the notes of the Bank of the Republic could be freely exchanged for gold coin or drafts on foreign banks payable in gold. By September, 1931, however, the gold holdings of the Bank of the Republic, which in December, 1928, amounted to 64,658,000 pesos, had been reduced to 14,000,000 pesos, thus endangering the position of the bank and the stability of the currency.

<sup>1</sup> Laws No. 99 and 119 of Sept. 24 and Nov. 16, 1931.

<sup>2</sup> *Memoria de Hacienda, 1932*, Imprenta Nacional, Bogota, 1932, p. 5.

To prevent the complete extinction of the gold reserve, President Olaya Herrera issued on September 24, 1931, Decree No. 1643, by virtue of which the free movement of gold was temporarily suspended and its export prohibited. The Bank of the Republic was given the right to buy, sell, and export gold, and to negotiate in international exchange. Other banking institutions were allowed to buy and sell exchange only with the permission of a commission appointed to control all foreign exchange operations and the transfer of funds abroad. This commission was empowered to restrict exchange transactions to those which in its opinion were indispensable to the commerce and industry of the country. The decree also provided that the notes of the Bank of the Republic could be redeemed only through the sale of sight drafts on New York, upon authorization of the commission.

Several measures were enacted to complement this decree. One, Decree No. 1723, of September 30, required all banks to deposit their metallic reserves in the Bank of the Republic, and all citizens holding deposits abroad amounting to more than 1,000 pesos to inform the commission of the amounts of such deposits. Still more important, however, was Decree No. 1187, of October 21, whereby another commission was appointed to control exports. By the terms of this decree exporters were required to sign an agreement stating that they would engage in no transactions which would promote the flight of capital from the country. Upon approval of the details of a proposed export transaction the commission was to grant the exporter a permit to ship his merchandise, precautions being taken so as not to cause him undue delays. The decree, however, did not require exporters to sell to the Bank of the Republic the exchange obtained through the sale of their merchandise abroad.

There were several weaknesses in the methods established by the Government in these decrees, partly because the Bank of the Republic did not have the exclusive right to buy and sell foreign exchange, since other banks could do so with the permission of the Control Commission; partly because the two commissions were not directly subordinate to the bank and there was a lack of coordination between the commissions themselves and between the commissions and the bank; but primarily because exporters were not obliged to sell to the bank the foreign exchange obtained through the sale of their products.

To remedy these deficiencies, Decree No. 2092 was issued on November 27, 1931, providing that the purchase and sale of foreign exchange could be made only by or through the Bank of the Republic. The two commissions set up little more than two months before to control foreign exchange and exports were done away with and the Office of Control of Exports and Foreign Exchange was created as a

direct dependency of the Bank of the Republic. Since the promulgation of Decree No. 2148 of December 4, 1931, this office has been functioning with the advice of a board of three members, representing the National Government, the directors of the Bank of the Republic, and the Superintendent of Banks.

The office is divided into two sections, one granting export licenses and the other permits for the purchase of foreign exchange. No merchandise may be exported from Colombia unless the exporter has first obtained from the Office of Control a license, which is granted only when the office is assured that the proceeds in foreign currency derived from the transaction will be placed at the disposal of the Bank of the Republic.

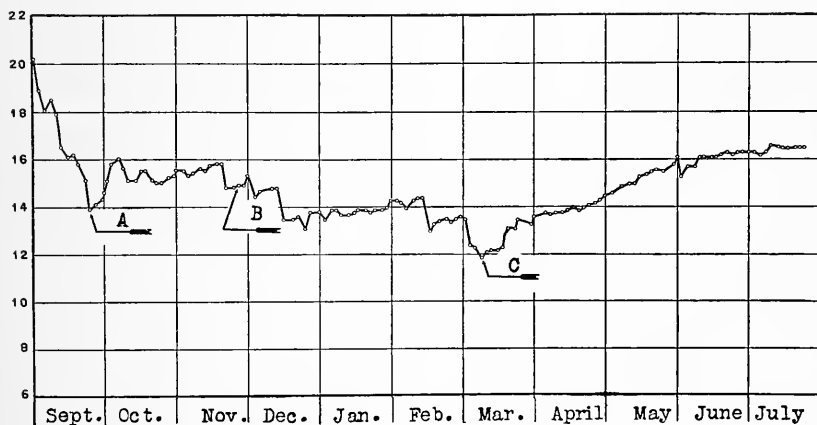
The control of exchange was made even more strict through the regulations enacted in Decree No. 421 of March 7, 1932. According to this decree, in the case of debts originating from merchandise imported prior to September 24, 1931, the Office of Control can authorize permits to buy foreign exchange only in amounts not exceeding 20 per cent of the total. The payment of other obligations assumed before September 24, 1931, is subject to the same regulation; that is, the debtor may obtain foreign exchange for the payment of his debt only in periodical quotas of not more than 20 per cent of the total obligation. At the time this decree went into effect all those having foreign obligations contracted before September 24, 1931, were required to submit to the Office of Control, within 30 days, a statement of their obligations substantiated by documents. The debts so reported amounted to 33,000,000 pesos.

The Office of Control has limited the amount of exchange which may be purchased for the expenses of Colombians abroad, or of foreigners in business in Colombia and their families, to 250 pesos a month for the head of the family, 150 pesos for the wife, and 100 pesos for each dependent child. Such drafts pay a tax of 10 per cent of their face value except those for students abroad, who may receive sums of not more than 150 pesos a month tax free. The regulations relating to the purchase of exchange for the payment of the foreign debt and for the purchase of external bonds are discussed elsewhere.

Owing to the restrictions placed upon foreign-exchange transactions many foreign investors have large sums in Colombian currency deposited in the banks of Bogota. The Office of Control, wishing to put this money in circulation and help national industries, will permit the withdrawal of the interest or dividends derived from the reinvestment of such capital in distinctly Colombian enterprises. If the situation of the gold reserves permit, the office will also authorize the withdrawal of the principal within two years, in such a manner as it may then accord. No less important is the provision by which

the Office of Control will authorize the withdrawal of any new foreign capital which may be introduced into Colombia after August 12, provided that the office is given proof that the conversion of the foreign currency into Colombian pesos was effected through the Bank of the Republic.

The graph below shows the gold reserves of the Bank of the Republic from September, 1931, to July, 1932, in millions of pesos. The arrows point to the state of the gold reserves when the three most important exchange control decrees were issued. Despite the fact that during this period the Office of Control has sold considerable amounts of exchange for the payment of foreign credits of the Bank of the Republic and the commercial banks of Colombia, as well as for the payment of interest on the national foreign debt and that of the Agricultural Mortgage Bank, for the importation of merchandise, for the purchase of external bonds, and for various other less important items, the exchange control measures have been instrumental not only in stopping the dwindling of the gold reserve but in increasing it from 14,000,000 pesos on September 24, 1931, to over 16,000,000 pesos in July, 1932. Another factor which should further increase the gold reserves of the Bank of the Republic during the present year is the increased production of gold in Colombia. During the first seven months of the year this production amounted to 3,008,295 pesos, as compared with 4,126,051 pesos during the whole of 1931, and it is expected that the total amount produced in 1932 will reach 6,000,000 pesos. The Bank of the Republic is buying this gold at a premium.



GOLD RESERVES OF THE BANCO DE LA REPUBLICA, BOGOTA

For the period of September, 1931 to July 1932

(Scale in millions of pesos)

A, Decree No. 1683, September 24, 1931; B, Decree No. 2092 of November 27, 1931; C, Decree No. 421 of March 7, 1932.

## RESTRICTION OF IMPORTS

On September 27, 1931, three days after the control of exchange was established in Colombia, President Olaya Herrera issued Decree No. 1706, by terms of which the importation of many so-called luxury articles was prohibited and import duties on a long list of products were substantially increased. By thus restricting imports it was expected that the flow of gold from the country would be further checked and a more favorable balance of trade effected. Among the articles whose importation was prohibited were silk textiles and apparel; automobiles, when the factory list price was over \$1,000; watches; precious and semiprecious stones; pianos; phonographs; radios; cigars; cigarettes; perfumery; playing cards; and liquors. The rates on such foodstuffs as rice, wheat, corn, potatoes, sugar, condensed milk, and lard, on such wearing apparel as shoes and straw hats, and on furniture and various textile manufactures were doubled. On many other products it was increased by one-half and on still others by one-fourth.

Through these strict restrictions the emergency was met for the time being, while a detailed study of the question could be made by the Government. The outgrowth of the study was the decision to increase the import duty on luxury articles rather than to prohibit their importation, a procedure which was likely to cause reprisals. Thus Decree No. 2194 was issued on December 31, 1931, providing for a new tariff schedule. Any modifications of the import duties provided in this decree must be solicited by a substantial group of persons representing an important commercial, industrial, or agricultural activity and have the backing of the Ministers of Finance, Industry, and Agriculture. Before any modification may be considered, the opinion of the Agricultural Society of Colombia, the Federations of Industrialists and of Producers, and the Chambers of Commerce must be heard on the matter.

The new import duties have not only restricted the importation of luxury articles, thus checking somewhat the outflow of gold, but have produced a rapid growth in domestic industry and agriculture. The production of foodstuffs for home consumption, especially, has been materially increased. As in all cases where import duties are raised, custom revenues in Colombia have declined and contraband trade has increased. If the duties were lowered, the reverse would no doubt be true, but the gold reserves would be affected. Therefore, in the opinion of the Minister of Finance, there is little probability that the tariff schedule will be substantially modified in the immediate future.—G. A. S.



(The decrees concerning the public debt, the creation of various credit institutions, the relations between debtors and creditors, and other pertinent matters will be discussed in the next issue of the BULLETIN.)

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## AID FOR BRAZILIAN BANKS

One effect of the world economic crisis in BRAZIL has been the curtailment of credit due to widespread lack of confidence. To relieve this condition, the Provisional Government has enacted a law creating a new financial institution, called the *Caixa de Mobilização Bancária* (Banking Mobilization Bureau), whose purpose is to put in circulation the money lying idle in bank vaults and to aid banks in emergencies by loaning them money with their frozen credits as collateral. All banks established in the country, whether national or foreign, are required by the law to deposit in the Bank of Brazil, which will finance the bureau, all cash on hand in excess of 20 per cent of the sum total of their deposits. For the use of this money, which may be recalled by the banks at any time, the Bank of Brazil will pay interest at the rate of 1 per cent per annum. On the other hand, the law requires all banks in the country to maintain in ready cash funds corresponding to 15 and 10 per cent, respectively, of their total sight and time deposits.

The bureau is authorized to make loans to national and foreign banks on frozen credits if such credits are sound aside from delayed liquidation and were contracted before the date of issue of the law (June 9, 1932). Banks may draw on the bureau only when their cash funds have fallen below the legal limits, and these loans may be used only to cover amounts withdrawn by depositors. The loans may not be made for a period of more than five years; the minimum interest rate is 6 per cent and the maximum 10 per cent. The banks will make payments to the bureau monthly as their deposits are restored to the previous level or the securities given as collateral for the respective loans are liquidated. Should the demands on the bureau exceed the resources of the Bank of Brazil, the National Treasury will furnish the necessary coverage through a credit operation or the issue of paper money. The bureau is to be established for a period of 10 years.

A contract by which the Bank of Brazil takes charge of the financing of the bureau was signed on July 7, 1932, by Dr. Arthur de Souza Costa, president of the bank, and Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, Minister of Finance, and approved by the Chief of the Provisional Government, Dr. Getulio Vargas, on July 14 last.

## LABOR

*First Latin American Labor Congress.*—The First Latin American Labor Congress, held in Santiago, CHILE, under the auspices of the Centro Internacional Obrero de Solidaridad Latinoamericana, was formally opened with brilliant ceremonies on May 1, 1932, before an assemblage containing representatives from Mexico and various Central and South American Republics. At a preliminary meeting, held the day before, the delegates had paid homage to outstanding Chilean labor leaders of the past and elected the officers of the congress.

The opening address of the inaugural session was made by the President of the congress, Sr. Manuel Correa O. He reviewed the events which had led to the calling of the congress and set forth its aims. In speaking of the former, he recalled that the incident which first demonstrated the possibility of a labor congress where workers from all Hispanic America should be represented was a meeting of Chilean and Peruvian workers held in Lima during 1913. From the associations made at that conference came a new bond of friendship between the workers of the two nations and the inspiration for the Centro Internacional Obrero de Solidaridad Latinoamericana in Santiago, Chile, which was instrumental for the calling of the First Latin American Labor Congress. It had originally been planned to hold such a meeting between the years from 1918 to 1920, but circumstances were such that this was impossible and it was postponed until the present date.

According to Señor Correa, the underlying purpose of the congress was to seek means for improving the conditions of the worker and giving him a more hopeful outlook for the future. To do this, he said that it would be necessary for the congress to study production and commercial interchange and the problems of cooperative and mutual benefit agencies and labor organizations. At the same time he pointed out the need for uniform legislation throughout the Americas on labor and family relationships and the civil and political rights of women, and recommended the appointment of labor attachés at all legations and embassies.

The first plenary session was held the following day; at that time commissions were appointed to study and pass upon the papers and resolutions to be presented. All subjects coming before the congress were first submitted for the approval of one of the five general commissions appointed to deal with economic, biological, cultural, political, and juridical matters.

A large number of subjects of national and international importance were considered, and the congress went on record as approving a confederation of Latin American labor organizations; campaigns to eradicate social diseases; the modification of labor accident laws to allow greater benefits for the worker; the establishment of maternity insurance; the standardization of the wages of women throughout Latin America; greater protection for children; the introduction of methods used in progressive schools; the substitution of reformatories for prisons; reduction of the working day; the organization of life insurance and other cooperative societies; issuance of special postage stamps, the proceeds from whose sale would be used to alleviate suffering among the unemployed; creation of national social welfare councils in all countries; the establishment of a Latin American bank; and the adoption of a single unit of exchange for all countries. The abolition of customs barriers and the creation of a Ministry of Labor in each of the Latin American Republics also claimed the attention of the congress.

The closing session of the congress took place on May 8. Following the consideration of the principal subjects still pending, the congress embodied its resolutions in the form of a constitution for the Latin American Labor Confederation. Many social events were held both during and upon the conclusion of the congress in honor of those attending, and after the close of the sessions a trip through the southern part of Chile was arranged for the foreign delegations. It was announced that the Second Latin American Labor Congress would be held in Lima, although no definite date was set for its meeting.

In addition to the Chilean organizations forming the Centro, the majority of which are mutual-aid associations, cooperative organizations, or trades-unions, the following organizations from other countries were represented at the congress: The Workers' Federation of La Paz, Bolivia; workers' organizations of Guatemala, Paraguay, and Colombia; and the Peruvian workers' organizations of Lima, Callao, Arequipa, and Cuzco. The Mexican Government was represented by an observer, and several labor organizations of other countries expressed by letter their interest in the work of the congress. Among the latter were the General Confederation of Labor of Argentina, the Railway Union of Buenos Aires, and the Spanish General Federation of Labor. The Workers' Federation of Panama declared its willingness to support the conclusions of the congress and sent a report which was to have been delivered by its delegate in person had it been possible for him to attend.

*Mexican Immigration Conference.*—Under the honorary chairmanship of the President of the Republic and the Secretary of the Interior, the Third Mexican Immigration Conference began in Mexico City on July 23 last and remained in session until August 2. Don Andrés

Landa y Piña, Chief of the Bureau of Migration of the Department of the Interior, presided at the sessions, which were attended by delegates representing the various branches of the Government interested in immigration, the chambers of commerce of the nation, and the principal steamship, railroad, and aviation companies, national and foreign, which operate in Mexico.

Among the most important topics studied by the conference, the following may be mentioned: The possibility of improving the immigration inspection service, in order to render all possible facilities to travelers and at the same time protect the country against the illegal entrance of undesirable aliens; a clearer definition of the status of aliens in Mexico; repatriation of Mexican laborers; promotion of desirable immigration; and promotion of tourist travel.

In regard to the first of the above-mentioned subjects, the conference was of the opinion that entrance into the country should be made as easy as possible for bona fide immigrants and tourists, but that certain inspection requirements must be enforced to bar those trying to enter without meeting the necessary requisites, or arriving under the guise of tourists with the intention of staying permanently. With a view to insuring the efficiency of the inspection service, the conference declared itself in favor of having it administered under the provisions of a civil-service law, thus guaranteeing the permanency of the personnel.

Another declaration expressed the belief that all foreigners who migrate to Mexico should expressly renounce the diplomatic protection of their respective Governments. It was felt that those who wish to participate in the advantages offered by the country should also be willing to share any possible disadvantages. The conference also held that all Mexican women who marry foreigners should retain their Mexican nationality.

The repatriation of Mexican laborers constituted one of the most important subjects under discussion and was given extensive consideration. More than a million Mexicans have emigrated, mainly to the United States, causing their native country a severe loss. Nearly 250,000 laborers have been brought back to Mexico through the efforts of the National Government, and adequate means of providing work for them and for the rest of the nation's unemployed must be devised. To achieve this, it was proposed that communal and cooperative agricultural colonies be created under the direction of a Federal colonization commission.

The promotion of immigration was considered as highly desirable, and certain recommendations were made about the type of immigrant best suited to Mexico. It was felt that the country does not require at the present time additional numbers of city dwellers or of field laborers. It does need, and should welcome, small landed proprietors.

The conference considered tourist travel as highly desirable, and recommended that propaganda in favor of it be developed in foreign countries by the Mexican diplomatic and consular representatives. It was also recommended that inspection requirements for tourists be reduced to a minimum, and that the country be shown to those visitors not only from the private point of view but also from what might be termed the official standpoint. The Government should arrange for tourists to become acquainted with the commercial and industrial opportunities the country offers, and also with its historic, artistic, and sociological aspects. A reorganization of the National Tourist Commission was deemed desirable. This body should be made up of a representative of the President of the Republic and two representatives of the commercial interests of the nation.

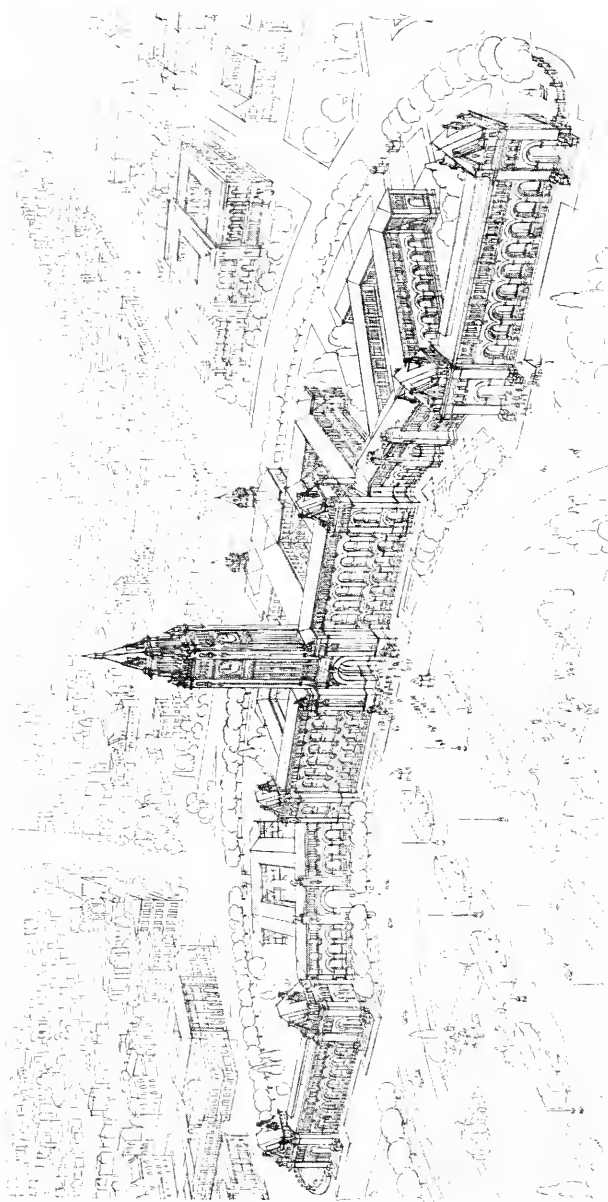
The efforts of the Third Mexican Immigration Conference to achieve a better understanding of the country's population problems and to evolve adequate measures for their solution undoubtedly constitute a great step forward in the march of progress in that nation.



## ART, SCIENCE, AND EDUCATION

*Teachers' associations help popularize education in Brazil.*—A recent release issued to the Brazilian press by the Ministry of Education and Public Health praises the work of teachers' associations in promoting popular education throughout the country. Faith that coming years will see a continued development in educational activities in BRAZIL, says the Ministry, is fully justified by the growing movement toward association apparent among members of the teaching profession. By coordinating their enthusiasm and energy and speaking with authority and prestige, Brazilian teachers have been endeavoring to focus public attention upon educational problems, seeking solutions adapted to the peculiar administrative, political, and social conditions of the country. This movement for the promotion of popular education, characterized by a spirit of voluntary cooperation, is of great benefit to the nation, for groups of private individuals are responsible for the study of technical educational questions and, in many cases, for the establishment of educational institutions, sometimes maintained at great sacrifice.

The work of the Brazilian Association of Education may be cited as an example. Organized in October, 1924, it has grown rapidly and is to-day one of the strongest forces in spreading popular education in Brazil. The specific purposes for which this organization was founded include the maintenance of a center for lectures and an educational library and museum; the publication of educational works; a special study of ethics, civics, and physical education, such agencies as the



Courtesy of Laurence V. Coleman

NEW NATIONAL MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY, BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA

This architect's sketch shows the building for the Bernardino Rivadavia Museum, as it will appear when completed. The first section erected, which was dedicated July 6, 1932, is that to the left of the main entrance.

radio, the library, and interschool correspondence, and the care of abandoned children, the permanent organization in Brazil of educational statistics, and the collection of national and foreign educational legislation; and the organization of educational conferences.

Important as it is, the work of this cultural institution does not comprise the whole contribution of the Brazilian teachers to the social upbuilding of the country, for local associations have been established in many of the States and are doing their share to make a success of this national educational movement. The Natal press, for example, gave considerable publicity to the celebration by the Teachers' Association of the State of Rio Grande do Norte of the second anniversary of the establishment of the Aurea de Barros Kindergarten, founded by the association in 1930. A feature of this celebration was the inauguration of a physical culture center installed in ample quarters and provided with the most modern of apparatus. Last April the association inaugurated a lecture course on the care and training of children at the Antonio de Souza School, also founded by the association, and recently it has organized a literary club among the students of this institution.

*New building for Natural History Museum.*—On July 6, 1932, the first section of the new edifice for the Bernadino Rivadavia Museum of Natural History of Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA, was dedicated in the presence of the President of the Republic, Gen. Agustín P. Justo, Cabinet Ministers, the rector of the university, eminent scientists, and friends of the museum.

The Bernadino Rivadavia Museum, a national institution, is not only one of the oldest in South America but also one of the few with an organized group of private supporters. The Sociedad de Amigos del Museo was founded in 1923, when the museum celebrated its first centenary, with a threefold aim—to help finance exploration and publication, to secure special collections, and to provide lectures for the public. At the same time the Government increased the duties and responsibilities of the museum to include, among others, scientific studies throughout the Republic and the diffusion of scientific knowledge among the people.

The museum will head, when completed, the Parque Centenario, a small oval park in what is becoming a scientific center, for the Pasteur Institute and the Institute of Physiotherapy already occupy sites facing it. It is hoped in time to make the entire park an adjunct to the museum as an outdoor section, where trees, plants, works of art, and other objects will have an appropriate relation to each other and to the museum. One of the projects is the erection of statues in memory of internationally famous scientists who have made special studies in Argentina; among these men are Azara, Darwin, D'Orbigny, Humboldt, Hudson, Ameghino, Bompland, and Burmeister, whose

collection of insects is one of the many interesting exhibits in the institution.

When finished the museum will occupy four blocks; the main building, with a central tower and two wings attached at an angle, will occupy the two blocks at one end of the park, with two more wings on each of the adjacent lots. Although the museum is to be a single unit, the side streets are to be arched over by covered bridges, so that traffic will not be impeded; there will also be subterranean communication between the different sections. According to present plans, the basement will be devoted to shops and storage, the first three floors to exhibition rooms, the fourth floor to the library, laboratories, study rooms, and offices, and the tower to the administrative and executive chambers and apartments for the director and the superintendent. A lecture hall with a seating capacity of 600 will be a part of the finished project. The inner courts and outer gardens will be used for open-air exhibits.

The section dedicated in July will be the extreme end of the main building; a second section now under construction is already far advanced. The whole structure when completed will not only be a notable contribution to the architecture of the city, but also an important step forward in the progress of the institution toward the accomplishment of its ideal.



## PUBLIC HEALTH AND SOCIAL WELFARE

*Guatemala's new sanitary code.*—One of the last laws issued by the National Legislative Assembly of GUATEMALA during this year's sessions was the Sanitary Code of the Republic, which became effective on June 6, 1932, upon publication in the official organ of the Guatemalan Government, the *Diario de Centro América*. The enforcement of health laws and regulations is in charge of the President of the Republic, as Chief of the Sanitary Service, the Minister of the Interior and Justice, the Director General of Public Health, the Superior of Public Health Council, the *jefes políticos* and military commanders of the Departments, the Departmental doctors, the Director General of the National Police, the agents of the General Bureau of Sanitation at ports and frontier towns, and the sanitary inspectors appointed by the Superior Sanitary Council. In carrying out their duties they will be aided by the staff and students of the School of Medicine and the School of Natural Sciences and Pharmacy of the National University, the municipalities, the directors and physicians of the public hospitals, the Guatemalan Red Cross, and the diplomatic and consular representatives of the Government abroad.



The organization and administration of the Sanitary Service created by the code will be in charge of a Bureau of Public Health. The head of this department, the Director General of Public Health, as well as the members of the Superior Council of Public Health which is to assist him, will be appointed by the President. The Council will be composed of the director general as chairman, three physicians—one to act as assistant director in charge of the work of epidemic prevention, another to act as secretary, and the third to be the chief of the bacteriological laboratory—two chemists to take charge of the chemical and biological laboratories, respectively, a consulting attorney, a public health judge, a sanitary engineer, a pharmacist, and a veterinarian. The new code was drawn up to include in a single document not only the most important provisions of former codes but also all scattered laws and regulations dealing with the matters falling within its scope.

The Bureau of Public Health is to issue all port, boundary, and maritime sanitary regulations and those dealing with land or air traffic; define communicable diseases and take measures for their prevention; keep a register of all those practicing in any branch of the medical or allied professions; establish an Office of Sanitary Statistics, to compile such medical statistics as the council may indicate from reports submitted by hospitals, physicians, and the General Bureau of Statistics; wage an antialcoholic campaign; and be responsible for carrying out regulations concerning cemeteries.

The Public Health Council will regulate the importation, manufacture, storage, and sale of narcotics, medicines, and medicinal products, as well as the importation and sale of foodstuffs and beverages; indicate punitive measures to be taken in cases of adulteration or falsification; impose such livestock quarantines as may be advisable; approve all projects involving the work of sanitary engineers, which include not only the planning and construction of new settlements and all drainage, sewerage, and paving projects, but also the requirements to be fulfilled by public services, including schools and hospitals, and by industrial plants; regulate industrial hygiene and see that, in accordance with the provisions of the code, every agricultural, industrial, mining, or other business enterprise having 100 or more employees maintains a physician or authorized agent of the bureau; dictate measures on prenatal, infant, and preschool hygiene; carry on an educational campaign by means of an official publication, the daily press, and lectures in schools and industrial establishments; establish schools of public health, to provide a group of specialists in public health and sanitation from which to draw the personnel of the bureau and its dependencies, and health institutes, for the preparation and supervision of vaccines and serums; and have extraordinary powers in times of serious epidemics or like calamities.

The code establishes public health tribunals, to be presided over in the capital by a public health judge and in other districts by the *jefes politicos*. These tribunals shall have exclusive jurisdiction over all matters relating to public health in accordance with the provisions of the code.

*Compulsory medical certificate for servants.*—By virtue of a regulation recently issued by the President of the DOMINICAN REPUBLIC, all persons employed as servants, nurses, wet nurses, or in other similar domestic service, will hence forth be required to have a medical certificate attesting to their freedom from skin and other communicable diseases. The certificate may be secured from any registered physician or public health doctor. The latter shall make no charge for the examination, and all analyses made by the National Laboratory shall likewise be free. Local public health authorities are authorized to require a new examination whenever there is any doubt as to the legality or accuracy of a certificate. Those whose employees in domestic service are not provided with the proper certificate will be responsible before the law and subject to penalties corresponding to offenses against the public health.

*Antituberculosis campaigns in the Americas.*—Tuberculosis is one of the diseases most successfully combated during recent years. The struggle against it will never be won, however, until there is complete cooperation between its potential victims, government authorities, and the scientists who have been instrumental in providing mankind with the weapons with which to fight it. The dissemination of accurate, definite, and easily understood information about the prevention, care, and cure of the disease is as important as the establishment of clinics, and both means are now being universally used to stamp out the scourge. Reports of recent activities in this direction in the Americas indicate that the seriousness of the problem is fully recognized by governments, medical authorities, and socially minded citizens.

The report for the year 1931 of the Antituberculosis League of ARGENTINA shows that the society continued active in its task of caring for tuberculosis victims and their families. In its two free dispensaries there were 50,937 consultations and 58,462 prescriptions given, and 8,725 pesos expended to meet the needs of patients. Medical attention and social relief were given to 7,700 patients, of whom 1,005 proved to be tubercular. Both dispensaries have separate consultation rooms for children, dealing not only with those who have already contracted the disease but also with those who have been exposed to it.

In this way an extensive preventive program has been carried out, especially in cooperation with the José Elordy Preventive Home for children of tubercular parents, a social agency of great value in Banfield. It was established to help such children escape contagion or to prevent the active development of the disease in those already infected.

In 1931, on the initiative of Prof. Francisco Destéfano, Christmas seals were put on sale in Argentina for the first time, the proceeds to be used for the antituberculosis campaign. These seals, first introduced in Denmark in 1904, have been adopted in many European countries and in Brazil, Canada, and the United States; the first Argentine seal carried a picture of the *hornero* (oven bird), the national bird of the Republic.

The Red Cross of COSTA RICA has recently taken an active interest in antituberculosis work, as the result of official statistics published last year, showing that a large porportion of the inhabitants of the capital were infected. Toward the end of 1931 an antituberculosis dispensary was established, with the approval of official and medical authorities and social agencies. The Antituberculosis League, an independent society, was established by the President of the Republic to collect and administer the necessary funds. For the six months' period, November 28, 1931, to May 28, 1932, 681 people were examined and 1,383 analyses and 2,890 radioscope examinations made. In his final message to Congress on May 1, 1932, former President González Víquez reviewed the progress made during the previous six months, and, while commending the steps already taken for the hospitalization in existing institutions of those suffering from the disease, recommended the construction of a special tuberculosis sanatorium.

The Medical Association of Tegucigalpa has presented to the President of HONDURAS a request that one of the wards to be added to the San Felipe Hospital be used for tubercular patients. This would supplement the work of the new tuberculosis sanatorium in Santa Rosita, constructed in accordance with the latest dictates of science.

The antituberculosis campaign in MEXICO is under the direction of the Bureau of Public Health, which has begun a well-planned concrete program against the ravages of the disease. A report has just been published by the bureau setting forth what has been done and what remains to be accomplished in the national campaign. The report contains an explanation of the "Gea González Plan" for conquering the plague.

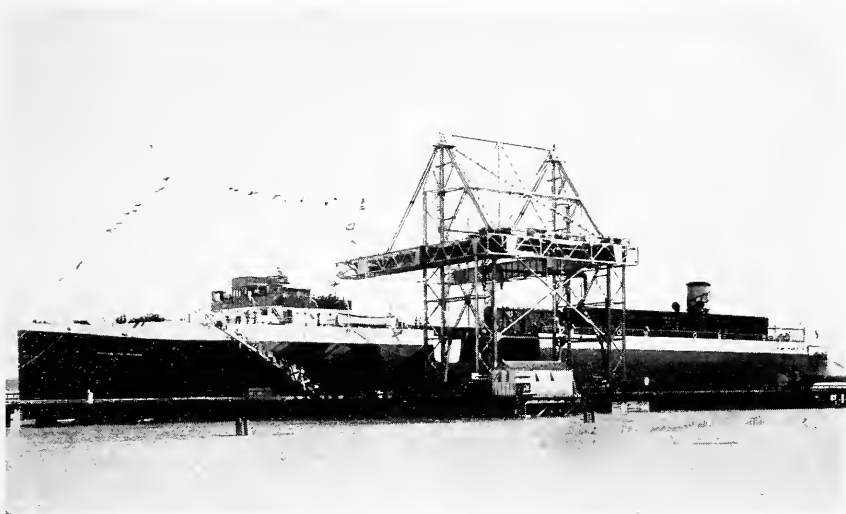
This plan, which deals with every phase of the subject and is based on the most advanced scientific knowledge, is to be carried out by direct and indirect means in the Federal District and the various States. The fundamental agency is the dispensary, to which is intrusted diagnosis, educational work, visiting, the selection and separation of those infected, and, in general, all preventive measures. The visiting nurses attached to the dispensaries are charged with discovering patients who would not visit the dispensary voluntarily, seeing that medical prescriptions are followed at home, teaching hygienic measures, and trying by all means at their disposal to secure isolation in the home, their principal aim being to put into practice the theory that an educated tubercular patient is a barren source of contagion.

The patients at the dispensaries are classified; those whose lesions are not severe are not put to bed, although kept under the supervision of visiting nurses, while those with graver lesions, but whose cases are considered curable, are sent to the tuberculosis sanatorium at Hui-pulco, where they are treated and allowed to return to society, although still under the control of the institution. Before being discharged they are sent to a special school to be taught a new trade that will not impair their health, or given positions in appropriate establishments or on cooperative farms.

Work on a tuberculosis sanatorium now under construction on the outskirts of Mexico City is far advanced. The site is between Mexico City and Cuernavaca, at an elevation of nearly 7,500 feet, on a wooded tract of over 130 acres. The buildings will have eight wards, seven public and the other private, and only curable cases will be admitted. Other provisions for tubercular patients in and around Mexico City are to be found in the General Hospital, where a ward has been set apart for them, and in hospitals in Tlalpam, one of which is for infected employees of the National Railroads and the other for the army.

IN PERU, where the ravages of the disease have been great, the anti-tuberculosis work has been under the charge of the Bureau of Public Health since May 6, 1927. The bureau has accepted, however, the collaboration of lay organizations already in the field, of which the two outstanding were the Women's Antituberculosis League and the Public Welfare Society. The former was a pioneer in private efforts to combat the disease; the results of its labors were of such proven worth that in 1925 the Government granted it a subsidy to further the work. All executive action is now in the hands of the Public Welfare Society, which has three committees, of men, of women, and of the clergy, respectively. The work of the Women's League

still continues, but under the direction of the women's committee of the society. The committee of men is the latest, founded in January, 1932. The main object of these committees is to obtain from public authorities the passage of regulations, ordinances, and laws which shall contribute more effectively to the suppression of tuberculosis. They have also taken over the task of raising the funds which the league and other agencies need for carrying out relief already begun or initiating new enterprises.



SEATRIN "NEW ORLEANS"

This vessel, the first of its kind, has been plying between New Orleans and Habana for nearly 4 years. It has a capacity of 90 freight cars, which are lifted from the pier into the hold of the vessel. Once the cars are on board, they are locked in place so that, irrespective of the state of the sea, the contents reach their destination as they were originally packed. On account of the success with which this vessel has been operating, the owners decided to build two more similar ones of 100-car capacity to sail between New York, Habana, and New Orleans. Among the advantages of this new type of carrier are the speed with which the trains can be loaded and unloaded, the elimination of handling changes, the ease and safety of the transportation of liquid and perishable commodities, and the fact that the shipping of various commodities may be simplified, for grain need not be bagged nor machinery packed. The New York, Habana, and New Orleans freight services are to be inaugurated on October 6, 1932.

## NECROLOGY

On June 20, 1932, Señor Juan Elías Moscoso, jr., died in Santo Domingo after more than a year of painful illness. Señor Moscoso was not only an able writer and journalist but also prominent in politics and diplomacy. Under different administrations he served as Minister of Justice and Public Instruction and of Promotion and Director General of Posts and Telegraphs. His career as a diplomat, though brief, was noteworthy, for he represented the Dominican Republic as Minister to Haiti at a time when delicate negotiations were in progress.

Just a month later, on July 20, the last surviving founder of the Republic of Panama, Señor Tomás Arias, died in Panama City at the age of 77. He had been a member of the Provisional Board of Government, which took office on November 3, 1903. Señor Arias was Minister of Foreign Affairs and of the Interior in the first Cabinet, and later represented his nation abroad, in Europe and in America. At the time of his death he was president of a bank established to promote building.

Three days of national mourning were decreed by President Alfaro. After lying in state at the National Palace, Señor Arias was accorded a State funeral.

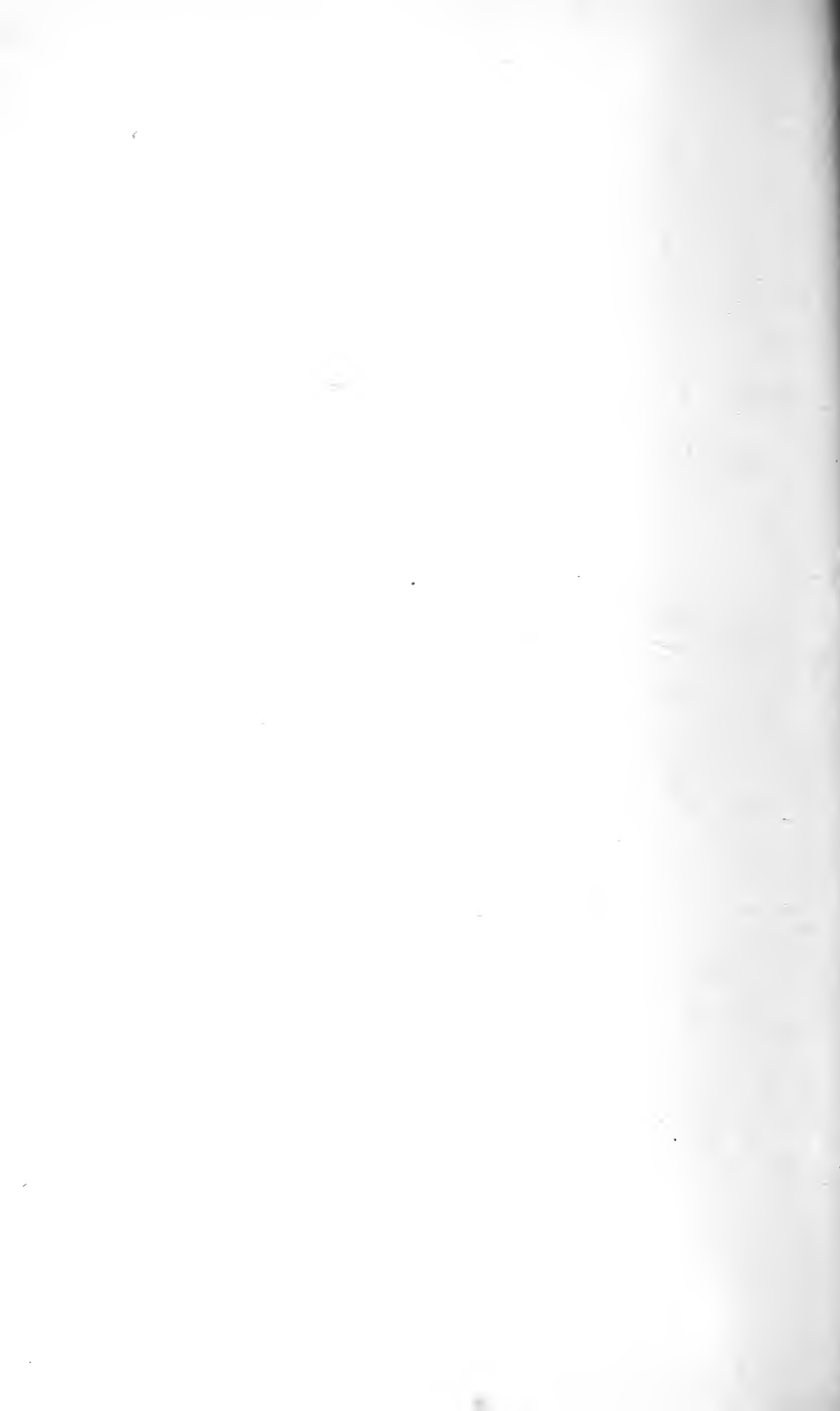
The Argentine Consul General in New York, Señor Alejandro T. Bollini, died suddenly at his home there on August 12. Señor Bollini had spent the last 7 of his 25 years of foreign service in New York; previously he had served as consul of Argentina in England, Germany, Brazil, Canada, and Hungary. At the time of his death he was president of the Society of Foreign Consuls, which was organized in New York five years ago and which counts in its membership representatives of 52 nations.

# SUBJECT MATTER OF CONSULAR REPORTS

REPORTS RECEIVED TO SEPTEMBER 17, 1932

Subject	Date	Author
ARGENTINA	1932	
Excerpt from report on general conditions in Argentina from June 28 to July 11, 1932. (Lack of knowledge regarding other countries in America. Rosario tramway service. Argentina foreign trade.)	July 15	Embassy, Buenos Aires.
Project for the control of the medical profession in the Argentine.	Aug. 26	Avra M. Warren, consul at Buenos Aires.
BRAZIL		
Commercial agreement between Brazil and India	Aug. 2	Embassy, Rio de Janeiro.
Motor roads in the State of Para	Aug. 16	A. J. Neu, vice consul at Para.
CHILE		
Southern Chile	Feb. 23	Thomas D. Bowman, consul at Santiago.
Chile's National Library celebrates its one hundred and nineteenth anniversary.	Aug. 30	Thomas D. Bowman, consul at Santiago.
COLOMBIA		
Antioquia's highways	Aug. 19	Raymond Phelan, vice consul at Medellin.
COSTA RICA		
Report on construction of road approved, Turrialba to Juan Viñas.	Aug. 19	David J. D. Myers, consul at San Jose.
Report on regulations governing the functioning of the public registry of Costa Rica.	Aug. 24	David J. D. Myers, consul at San Jose.
ECUADOR		
Annual report of the Ecuadoran Minister of Public Works, 1932.	Aug. 11	Legation, Quito.







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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



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NOVEMBER

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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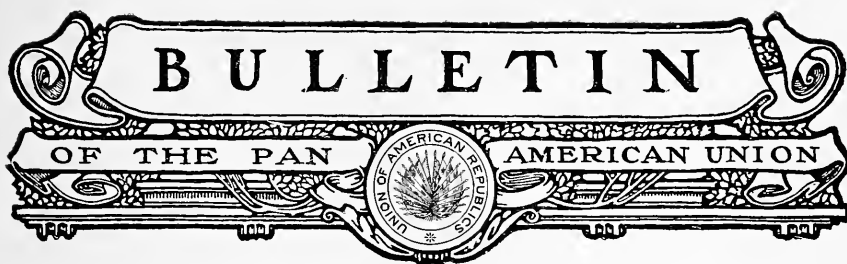
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GUIDE in your library)*



JOSÉ MATÍAS DELGADO

This marble bust of the patriotic priest of El Salvador, a leader in the Central American revolt for independence, was presented by the Salvadorean Government to the Gallery of Patriots of the Pan American Union.



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## JOSÉ MATÍAS DELGADO

1832—NOVEMBER 12—1932

By VÍCTOR JEREZ

*Member of the Salvadorean Academy of Letters and of the American Institute of International Law*

THE discovery of America was one of the most portentous events in the history of humanity. Noble and generous Spain which, in the words of the East, is temperate and mild as Yeman, abundant in flowers and fragrance as India, closed the medieval period with strong hand and high soul and opened a new world to the labors of modern civilization, labors which have brought forth a beautiful blossoming of the spirit and a flourishing development of human society.

The unique act of discovery was followed by the immense work of conquest. With the redeeming cross of the missionary and the flashing sword of the soldier, in deeds which surpass the bounds of fantastic legend, the conquest rescued from barbarism a group of peoples which to-day participate in progress and culture and welcome the prodigies of science, the wonders of industry, and the marvels of art.

But the task was not complete; with the passing of the years the wondrous sun of liberty illuminated the pathway which the countries of Central America were to travel toward the heights of their great destinies.

The spirit of democracy, which had triumphed in the prosperous cis-Atlantic colonies of England and which had fought in France the absolutism of monarchs, passed with increased strength from Europe to the coasts of the Spanish colonies, and in a hundred battles in which heroes fought against heroes these colonies achieved the lasting victory of the ideals by which they were inspired.

To bring to a happy ending the great work of the political emancipation of America, there arose a group of illustrious citizens, men of high courage and clear vision, with hearts consumed by love of coun-

try, who reckoned sacrifice for their cause a privilege and who saw in the difficulties which beset their path only a challenge to victory.

Among this notable group of men, who are to-day revered by America and admired by the world, the figure of Father José Matías Delgado stands forth with singular boldness of outline. This paladin of lofty and imperishable fame was of noble lineage. His father was Don Pedro Delgado, of the family of the Lords of Polán in Toledo, and his mother, Doña María Ana de León, daughter of an illustrious Salvadorean house, was a descendant of Don Sancho de Barahona, the first *alcalde* of Guatemala, who with Don Pedro de Alvarado conquered a great part of Central America.

Education had made little progress in the city of Guatemala in the last half of the eighteenth century, and if this was true in the capital of the Captaincy General, one may judge of its state in a provincial city such as San Salvador, where Delgado was born on February 24, 1767. On the completion of his primary instruction, he was sent to Guatemala, where he entered the seminary, thanks to a scholarship granted him by Archbishop Francos y Monroy. In that center of sound teaching and simple customs, he distinguished himself by his keen intelligence, rectitude of character, and exemplary behavior, winning the esteem of his fellow pupils and the praise and trust of his teachers. After obtaining the degree of bachelor of philosophy, he devoted himself to the study of theology and civil and canon law, with such marked success that because of his extensive knowledge he was often called upon to fill vacancies in the teaching staff created by the absence or illness of the professors. After fulfilling the necessary requirements, he received the degree of doctor of laws and was also ordained.

Shortly thereafter, he was appointed to a parish in San Salvador, his birthplace, which now became his residence. Here he labored indefatigably and with deep solicitude for the spiritual welfare of the people under his care. As a shepherd of souls he undertook his apostolic ministry with high devotion and evangelic abnegation; his ardent concern for the needy made him spend his personal fortune on their behalf, and so great was his sacerdotal zeal that to him came people of all classes of society in search of counsel in their difficulties, guidance in their affairs, and succor and refuge in their need.

Gifted with rare virtues, Father Delgado led a life which was a mirror of uprightness and a pattern of purity, as even his enemies could not but acknowledge. So considerable was his influence over his countrymen, and so great was his reputation for wisdom, that any decision of his was accepted as a judgment from which there could be no appeal. He was also characterized by an ardent patriotism, an unshakable love of liberty, and an untiring activity in the cause of freedom.

His firm conviction and singleness of purpose in regard to the political evolution of his country early decided him to labor energetically for independence. About 1811 his longing for liberty was intensified, and for the purpose of furthering the movement toward emancipation he joined Don Nicolás, Don Manuel, and Don Vicente Aguilar, three other priests of San Salvador, Don Manuel José Arce, who was destined to become the first president of the United Provinces of Central America, and other prominent citizens. This group organized a general insurrection of the province of San Salvador.

Everything pointed to the triumph of their efforts; at the head of the conspiracy was Delgado, with his great prestige among the lower classes, his eloquence, his gift of personal magnetism, his never-failing energy, and above all, the singular influence which his character, tempered like Toledan steel, exercised over all those who came into contact with him. Many of the more important centers of population were ready for revolution, and reliance was placed upon the sympathy of some of the other provinces of the Captaincy General. The excusable impatience of the conspirators, however, and a well-grounded fear of the exposure of their plans to the authorities caused these knights of liberty to launch themselves prematurely into action.

Success at first crowned the efforts of the patriots. At break of day on November 5, 1811, they took possession of the munitions found in the barracks; the authority of the Spanish commander, Don Antonio Gutiérrez de Ulloa, was set aside; Spaniards were removed from office, and national independence was proclaimed from the steps of the city hall of San Salvador by the illustrious patriot Don Manuel José Arce.

This first effort toward our emancipation, this dawn of our independence, was the work of Delgado's great spirit.

The opposition of those elements in the population which were in favor of Spanish rule was responsible for a temporary setback to the work of the insurgents. The authorities in Guatemala, on hearing of the events in San Salvador, sent emissaries, whose efforts were at first thought to have been successful, as in appearance peace and tranquillity were reestablished.

As a precautionary measure, Delgado was transferred to Guatemala City, where he could be watched more closely. However, three years had hardly passed before a new insurrection broke out, and all evidence points to the conclusion that it was the constant activity of Delgado which once more gave a vigorous impulse to the revolutionary faction of 1811. Although living in the political center of the Captaincy General, he communicated frequently with the Salvadoreans and cultivated close relations with various inveterate opponents of the Spanish régime.

When the provincial committee was organized in Guatemala, he became a member of that notable body, which was composed of men

high in the social life of the country. Outstanding among them was Father José Simón Cañas, a famous citizen who in later years was responsible for the abolition of slavery in Central America.

The motions passed by the committee were varied and of far-reaching importance. The resolution, however, which exercised the greatest influence on political and social life was that which induced the Captain General, Don Carlos Urrutia y Montoya, to invest the assistant inspector of the army, General Gabino Gainza, with the powers of government.

The new Captain General was of a fickle nature and was disposed to accept all of the resolutions passed by the committee which would



THE REVOLUTIONARY PLOT OF 1811

This historical painting depicts the group of revolutionists who, under the leadership of Delgado, organized the insurrection against Spain which began November 5, 1811.

permit him to continue in the enjoyment of the high office to which he had been appointed. Delgado, aware of this, induced his fellow patriots in San Salvador to write General Gainza urging him to proclaim independence, establish the republic of Central America, and assume the office of president, for which purpose the rich and populous province of San Salvador would immediately place herself at his command and contribute with all her resources to bring the great enterprise to a successful termination.

It is not presumptuous to suppose that such a flattering offer had a considerable part in inducing Gainza to assume an attitude favorable to independence.



At the meeting held on that memorable 15th of September, 1821, to consider the momentous subject of independence, those present divided into two parties, one which advocated a more or less lengthy postponement of definite action, and another which saw the necessity for prompt action and was impatient with any procedure involving delays or raising obstacles of any kind. To this second group belonged Delgado, and after an exchange of ideas, it was decided to proclaim immediately the independence of Central America.

The solemn document setting forth that vital decision bears, among others, the signature of the great protagonist of independence, Father Delgado, who on that day, after heroic sacrifices and constant effort through a long period of years, saw at last the realization of his patriotic desires and the consummation of his most cherished aims.

The happy news was received in San Salvador with great rejoicing. And this could not have been otherwise, for this province had been, as reported officially by Captain General Bustamente y Guerra to the Ministry of Justice in Spain, the first to lift the flag of revolt in the Captaincy of Guatemala; the region that even before September 15 was in agitation because of the delays placed by the Spanish authorities in the way of national emancipation; the province, in short, that initiated with glory, maintained with firmness, and defended with valor, republican principles and independence.

A few days after the events recorded above, a serious blow was dealt the movement in San Salvador as a result of the arbitrary action of the Intendant, Don Pedro Barriere, who threw the leaders of the independent party into prison and later sent them under guard to the jails of Guatemala. The provincial committee had no sooner learned of this action on the part of the Intendant than it sent Father Delgado to San Salvador, investing him with full authority in the hope that he might restore peace and quiet through the exercise of his well-known talents and influence.

One may well marvel that this occurrence in San Salvador, to all outward appearance of no great significance, probably the result of the youthful and feverish impatience of one party in the province and the conservative habits of another, had an unquestionably powerful influence on all future events concerning the political life of the confederation which came into being as the United Provinces of Central America.

Promptly on his arrival in San Salvador Father Delgado removed from their positions various individuals who were known to be hostile to the new régime, disbanded the company of volunteers, which had incurred the enmity of the people by its despotic proceedings, and called an election to the provincial committee.

The first acts of this committee, of which Father Delgado was made president, were to increase the public revenues, create primary schools,

and reorganize the militia. No one at that time could have suspected that this modest local governing body was destined to bring about far-reaching changes in the social order and to exercise a notable influence on the future of the country.

By one of those mysterious coincidences which baffle human comprehension, on the very day of the installation of the new administrative body General Gainza placed before the Central Committee in Guatemala the communication in which General Agustín Iturbide proposed to the Central American Provinces that they should be annexed to Mexico. The party antagonistic to independence received the proposal of Iturbide with great rejoicing, for its members were thus presented with the occasion and the method by which the privileges they had enjoyed under Spanish domination could be preserved. The members of this party, the monarchists of the previous régime, began their labors with great promptness and activity. They induced a great number of civil and ecclesiastical bodies, high officials, and even private individuals of wealth, to write enthusiastic congratulations to the Mexican Congress and to General Iturbide on this momentous resolution. They saw in the proposed union with Mexico the means by which an end could be made of our bitter civil struggles, and untold benefits assured the people of Central America.

After mature deliberation, the Committee in Guatemala resolved to have Iturbide's communication, together with the manifesto issued by General Gainza, printed and distributed to all the town councils of the Captaincy General. They were asked to determine in open session whether or not the offer made by Mexico should be accepted.

This resolution was carried out in all save one particular. The exception was that, on the advice of two influential individuals, the Captain General refrained from sending copies of the two documents to the authorities of San Salvador, for it was anticipated, and not without reason, that the province which had in its pre-Christian era so tenaciously resisted the Iberian conqueror in a bloody and unequal struggle that he found it necessary temporarily to suspend his fight for the domination of the country; that during the colonial period had shown herself restless and rebellious; that had been the first to manifest her intention of throwing off the alien yoke, disregarding the persecution of the despot, and nobly offering up the tranquillity of her homes and the lives of her sons, could not under any conditions accept such an ignominious proposal, a proposal which would render fruitless all the efforts she had put forth for so many years and nullify her great sacrifices.

Upon learning of the decision of the central authorities, Father Delgado immediately convoked the provincial committee and this body, convinced that the struggle for independence would be lost by annexation to Mexico, resolved to reject the proposal as unpatriotic

and illegal, and to resist with all available resources the odious imposition of a foreign government.

Energetic communications were sent to the Captain General and to the Central Committee, giving an exposition of the fundamental juridical reasons against annexation and the patriotic motives opposed to such a strange and unusual procedure, contrary to the obligation entered into when independence was declared, and predicting that such an arbitrary step would force the people to resort to arms and produce appalling results, "for it is eternally true that when a government breaks its compact with the people, they are freed from any obligation to recognize that government and may appoint other authorities to rule them."

These representations were not heeded, and the province of San Salvador flew to arms to resist the forces of General Filísola, sent by Emperor Iturbide to subjugate Central America.

Then followed ominous days, full of vicissitudes and anxiety, but if the danger was great, greater still was the will to overcome it.

Guatemala and almost all of the other provinces accepted the Empire. San Salvador, however, opposed annexation, and refused to be the docile instrument of the invader's ambitions and desires. She did not stop to weigh in the balance her inadequate resources for defense, nor the insurmountable obstacles against the recognition of her incontestable right to liberty; she saw only the greatness of her ideal and the justice of her cause.

In the clashes which took place between the Imperial and the Salvadorean forces, the latter, although outnumbered, gave impressive proof of their energy and valor, but in view of the superior resources of the enemy and the utter impossibility of confronting him on equal terms, it was decided, rather than to surrender, to march to the neighboring frontier and there to secure new means by which the struggle could be renewed.

Through the resistance offered by San Salvador to the Empire, Father Delgado achieved his object, and his attitude had a considerable part in bringing about the downfall of Iturbide. Confirmation of this statement may be had in the words of the famous Mexican, Gen. Guadalupe Victoria, to Col. Rafael Castillo: "You may have the satisfaction of knowing that San Salvador has been the thermometer of the movements in Mexico."

The spirited and high-minded conduct of Father Delgado resulted in the complete success of his plans, and the Proclamation of Casamata dashed Iturbide's ambitions to the ground.

Delgado's unshakable resolve that the people be given an opportunity to elect a constitutional assembly which would organize the Central American nation was finally realized by the installation of the august body which, on July 1, 1823, issued the decree by which the

provinces of the former Captaincy General of Guatemala declared themselves independent of Spain, Mexico, and of any other nation, whether of the old or the new world. Delgado as president of the assembly was the first to sign this notable document, which thus attests the national recognition of the immense labors and surpassing virtues of that outstanding citizen.

First made famous by the triumphs of November 5, 1811, Father Delgado, after the successful struggle against the pretensions of the imperialists, attained the full stature of immortality as the liberator of his country.

The inexperience of our people, who passed abruptly from the vassallage of the colonial period into the liberty of the Republic, resulted in the formation of extremist factions which rapidly brought two important states of Central America to civil strife. Delgado labored actively and persistently to prevent the horrors of war and to procure an agreement which would end the conflict. He ably utilized every possible means to reach a peaceful solution between the contestants, but his efforts were in vain, his counsel was ignored, and the country was stained with the blood of brothers.

With the restoration of peace that devoted priest returned to the service of his parishioners, and the eminent citizen to the presidency of the Legislative Assembly. In the functions of this office he directed all his attention to the passing of laws and resolutions which would assure the welfare of the people and the efficient administration of the country.

Father Delgado's incessant and fruitful labor could not exhaust his spirit, but vexations and disillusionment, the inevitable accompaniments of political strife, the insidious attacks of his adversaries, and the unjustifiable lack of comprehension of his noble motives and high aims embittered and saddened the last days of this illustrious patriot.

Early in 1832 a grievous illness attacked the venerable leader. Careful medical attention and the solicitous devotion and care of his family could not stop the advance of his malady, but although his body was scourged by pain, his spirit remained serene and his faculties unimpaired to the last. Knowing that his end was near, he summoned the leading men of the city and made them swear that they would accept death rather than see their country deprived of liberty.

After receiving the last rites of the church, that great leader, who had consecrated his life to the good of humanity and to the greatness of his country, expired at nightfall on November 12, 1832.

No sooner had his death become known than the entire city and neighboring towns gathered to pay him a tribute of respect, of homage, and of admiration, and to offer prayers over the mortal remains of the man who had strengthened them with his counsel, inspired them by his virtuous example, and guided them in the paths of glory.

His death brought into the homes of Salvadoreans the sadness of a personal loss. It was as though a universal anguish wrung the heart of the entire nation. For the citizens were conscious that they had lost the one man who had been the unfailing guide of their ideals, the very spirit of their enterprises. In success or adversity they had turned to him with trust and confidence; he personified all that was best in the people of his country; for them and with them he had suffered, he had made their good his goal, and in their behalf he had traveled the road of sacrifice.

El Salvador has never experienced a more sincere and profound grief. The people knew that the eminent citizen whom they mourned

THE DELGADO MONUMENT, SAN SALVADOR

This commemorative monument stands in San Salvador where Delgado was born February 24, 1787, and died November 12, 1832.



had loved his country with the tenderness of a son, and that in her defense, with never the shadow of a doubt or a moment of misgiving, he had not faltered.

In a white coffin, symbolic reminder of his purity of life, amidst tears and bent heads, and beneath showers of flowers thrown by the hands of children, his remains were carried through the streets for Christian burial in his own church.

The Legislative Assembly, official mouthpiece of the national grief, voted that funeral masses for Delgado should be said for 10 years, that his portrait should be hung permanently in the Assembly's Hall of Sessions, and that he should be called "The Father of his Country."

And the nation which honored him as the most esteemed of her sons, which during his life accorded him respect and veneration and at his death tearfully covered his grave with flowers, to-day returns in spirit to that grave. The flowers live again in the warmth of her remembrance of him who, while laying the cornerstone of her independence, inflamed the valor of the warrior and inspired the genius of the poet.

A century has passed since the death of that eminent and devoted patriot who personified the civil virtues, who with republican fearlessness defied the menace of an ancient power, and who gave his life to sacrificial service.

The violent attacks of his adversaries seemed but to strengthen his personality and his spirit, the obstacles and dangers of his course to add greater firmness and stability to his convictions. Against the background of Salvadorean history he looms as the embodiment of our national glories and as the most honored figure in our public life.

Thanks to his lofty virtues and his extraordinary talents, the darkness of oblivion will never conceal his noble and majestic figure nor obliterate that name which, like an inextinguishable beacon, illumines our national history.

Cast in the heroic mold, possessing rare public and private virtues, giving life to legend and impulse to history, Delgado belongs to that immortal company of predestined men whom God sends to nations in their hours of need to guide them to the heights.

To honor the glories of the past is but just, and to perpetuate the memory of those glories as a stimulus and example to future generations is truly patriotic.

Let Central America sculpture the name of her illustrious son on commemorative stone, while El Salvador is moved with pride, and with a profound gratitude awakens that name to new life, graving it in the serenity of marble and the majesty of bronze, and giving it to institutions and parks. Under the inspiration of Delgado's benign countenance she holds the meetings of her academies, the classes in her schools, and the deliberations of her legislators, and among palms of immortality she enshrines the memory of him who was first in independence and is first in the hearts of his countrymen.

## THE NEW PRESIDENT OF PANAMA, DR. HARMODIO ARIAS

ON October 1, 1932, Dr. Harmodio Arias was inaugurated President of Panama for the 4-year term ending in 1936. Señor Florencio Arosemena, before resigning the Presidency on January 2, 1931, accepted the resignation of the Secretary of Government and appointed in his stead Doctor Arias, who constitutionally assumed the provisional exercise of the executive power pending the arrival of the First Designate to the Presidency, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, then Panama's minister to the United States. Following the inauguration of Doctor Alfaro on January 16, Doctor Arias accepted the post the Chief Executive had left vacant in Washington and served his country in the capacity of Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary until November, 1931, when he returned to Panama as presidential candidate of the Doctrinary Liberal Party.

The elections were held on June 5, 1931, President Alfaro winning the respect and admiration of all parties by his untiring efforts to maintain order during the trying electoral period and secure a free and honest expression of the people's will at the polls. Indicative of the high example of civic culture set by the people of Panama on that occasion was the gesture of the losing candidate in gracefully acknowledging his defeat and in expressing his congratulations and best wishes to Doctor Arias when the National Electoral Board announced that the returns so far received, although not complete, insured the election of his opponent by a considerable majority.

The new President, although relatively a young man, is one of Panama's most distinguished lawyers. He was born in the city of Penonome, capital of the Province of Cocle, on July 3, 1886. Educated first in his native city and later in the capital of the Republic, at the age of 18 he won a scholarship to study abroad. He sailed for England in 1904 and after completing his preparatory studies at Southport entered the University of Cambridge, where in 1909 he received the degrees of bachelor of arts and master of laws. He then continued his studies at the University of London, graduating in 1911 as a doctor of laws.

Returning to Panama in 1912, Doctor Arias was appointed Assistant Secretary of Foreign Affairs and in the same year opened a law office. In 1914 he was appointed a member of the commission entrusted with the codification of the laws of the Republic and in 1918 professor of Roman Law in the National Institute. Doctor Arias represented



Photograph by Underwood & Underwood

HIS EXCELLENCY DR. HARMODIO ARIAS, PRESIDENT OF PANAMA

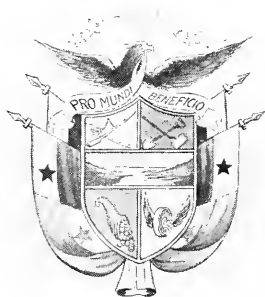
His inauguration for a 4-year term took place October 1, 1932.

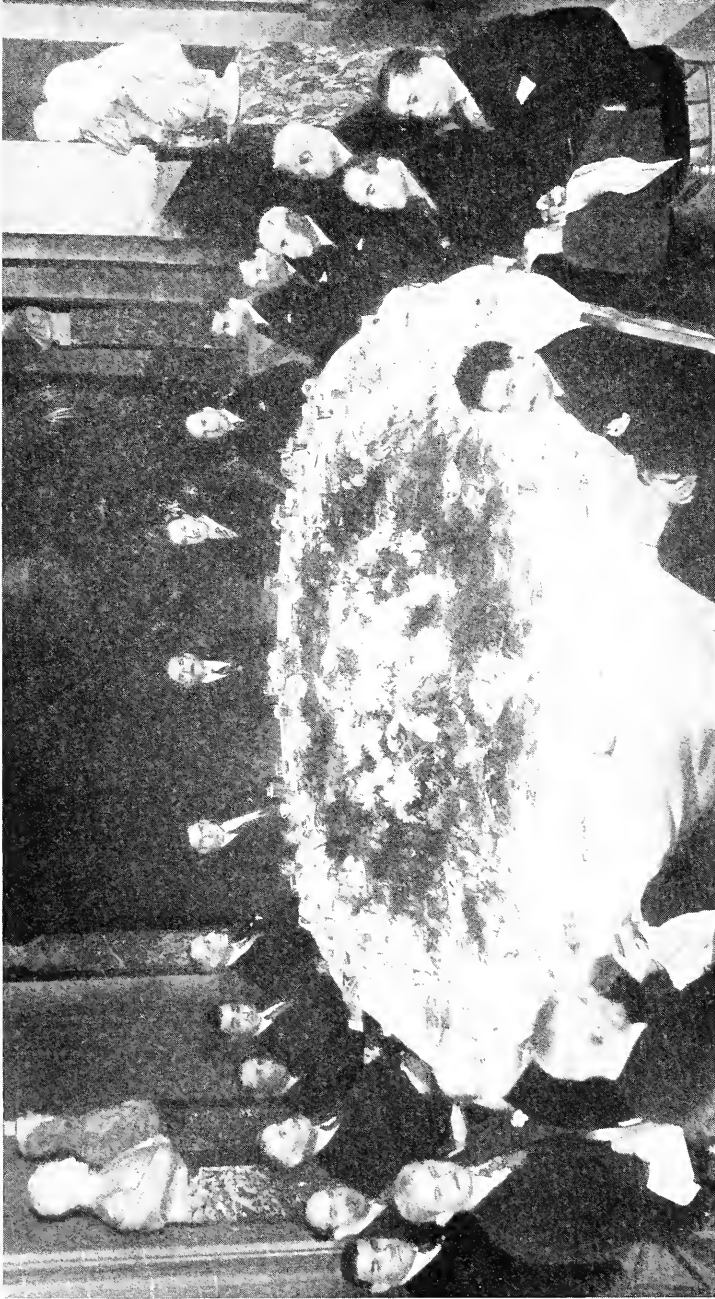


his country abroad for the first time in 1920, when he was appointed delegate to the first Assembly of the League of Nations. During the same year he was elected a member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague and in 1921 served as Minister Plenipotentiary and Envoy Extraordinary of Panama in Argentina. In 1924 he was elected to the National Assembly and at the request of the Republic of Uruguay represented that nation at the Bolivarian Congress held in Panama in 1926.

Dr. Harmodio Arias was married in 1916 to Señorita Doña Rosario Guardia, a charming member of Panaman society. While President-elect of Panama, Doctor Arias visited the United States where he was received in special audience by President Hoover and entertained at the White House, as well as elsewhere in official and private circles.

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#### FAREWELL LUNCHEON TO THE RETIRING MINISTER OF BOLIVIA

Following his resignation as Minister of Bolivia, Señor Don Luis O. Abelli was the guest at a luncheon tendered in his honor by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union on September 27, 1932. Beginning at left foreground, those seated around the table are, from right to left: Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union; Dr. Luis M. Debayle, Chargé d'Affaires of Nicaragua; Dr. Horacio F. Alfaro, Minister of Panama; M. Dantes Bellegarde, Minister of Haiti; Señor Abelli; Hon. Henry L. Stinson, Secretary of State and Chairman of the Governing Board; Dr. Felipe A. Espil, Ambassador of Argentina; Dr. Céleo Dávila, Minister of Honduras; Señor Don Pablo Herrera de Huerta, Chargé d'Affaires of Mexico; Señor Don Enrique S. de Lozada, Chargé d'Affaires of Bolivia; Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Señor Don Manuel González, Chargé d'Affaires of Costa Rica; Dr. José T. Barón, Chargé d'Affaires of Cuba; Señor Don Roberto Despradel, Minister of the Dominican Republic; Dr. R. de Lima e Silva, Ambassador of Brazil; Dr. J. Varela, Minister of Uruguay; Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaaya, Minister of Venezuela; Dr. Gonzalo Zaldumbide, Minister of Ecuador; Dr. Emilio Edwards Bello, Minister of Chile in Cuba and Venezuela, and Chargé d'Affaires ad interim in Washington; Dr. Roberto Meléndez, Special Representative of El Salvador on the Governing Board.

## URUGUAYAN MUSIC

BY "ELISABETTA"<sup>1</sup>

URUGUAY, the youngest independent South American Republic, is probably also the youngest of them all in musical history, since the other countries which form that immense sisterhood of nations are known to have had music of some nature among their mountains, valleys, plains, and hills earlier than any mention of it occurs in connection with Uruguay.

On the east coast and far into the center of the South American Continent, the Indian tribes possessed some knowledge of tone, as is evident through the discovery of rude instruments, such as drums and roughly hewn flutes of bamboo and reed. I have seen similar instruments in use comparatively recently in the interior of Brazil. As for Uruguay, I do not know that she had any primitive instrument of her own, since the Charrúas, Bohanes, Yaros, and a few other tribes which roamed the land before our European discoverers arrived seem to have possessed none; at least, no historical mention has been made of any. Nevertheless it is probable that their war dances were accompanied by beats of some drumlike instrument and the striking and blowing of reeds; we also know that the call to battle was blown on rude trumpets. Since these aborigines appear to have had only the vaguest idea of rhythm, and since, in place of the comparatively tuneful songs of the indigenous tribes of other parts of America, our Indians used only screams and shouts without any tone characteristics, there was no ethnological tradition or characteristic favorable to the development of music in our native peoples.

Naturally the Europeans had their own knowledge and conception of music, but the African tom-tom and elongated barrel-shaped drums of our first negroes, who were brought by our conquerors as slaves or servants at the commencement of the eighteenth century, constituted the introduction of tone and rhythm to our native Indians. Unfortunately, the Indians were practically exterminated long before our national writers of music began their work, and therefore we do not know whether the Indians developed any musical sense.

As our national instrument we claim the guitar, the old and beautiful Spanish instrument which undoubtedly was brought to our land by the brave settlers some time after 1726, and which has become part of us. From Spain also came the bagpipes of Galicia (which, however, have disappeared completely, never having been played

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<sup>1</sup> E. M. S. de Pate.

extensively in Uruguay) and the accordion, or *bandoleón*, which, with its plaintive sound, is an important instrument in our native orchestras of popular music (*orquestas típicas*).

It was not until after 1726, when the capital city of Montevideo was founded, that groups of lovers of music were formed. As far back as the year 1800 European visitors were agreeably surprised at the music rendered and the lovely voices heard at the *tertulias*, as evening receptions were then called.

We may say of Uruguay, as of the majority of American nations, that music runs in two distinct currents: One following the native bent and the other that of the mother country. These were completely different at the beginning of the last century when our native music was in its first stages and the music of Europe was being brought to our ears. It is very probable, too, that we are greatly indebted for our love of European music to the Spanish and later to the Italian priests who chanted the masses in our cathedral, whose foundation stone was laid in 1790.

Like all nations, Uruguay has its folk music, with its haunting descriptive melodies in the minor keys; its picturesque and expressive themes, its longing homesickness, its songs of love, its seductive rhythm. We may say that the Gaucho, the mythical yet powerful founder, the visionary and patriotic descendant of our amalgamation of nations and their virtues—the first real owner of Uruguay—also was the first real composer of our folk music. Wandering far, crossing again and again the land of his birth, whistling his thoughts in loneliness, with his guitar swung across his saddle he would sing at eventide of his love, his sorrows, his joys, his impressions of nature's beauty and the future glory of his land.

Also, like other lands, ours has its legends and I will digress a moment to transcribe here the legend of our guitar according to one of our most famous writers of native phantasy, whose tale goes somewhat as follows: "There was once a handsome young Gaucho of the first that were born in the new land, who was much sought after, since he was charming and gifted in poetry, but whose wandering spirit never found the maid to whom he could give his heart's love, some one whose heart would beat in unison with his own. One day he wandered far on his spirited horse, his best friend, to consult a wise man of the hills in his perplexity. After hearing his troubles, the wise man said to him, 'My son, thou art too good to be so punished; I will give thee comfort; thou shalt have the most faithful of companions. I will place in thy arms a beautiful piece of wood, shaped like a woman's body, with the smooth satin polish of her skin and the perfume of her breath; in her breast a cavity into which thou shalt mold the verses from thy lips, bringing forth in living throbs the heart of sound which there lies dormant; thou shalt see the shining

# El Poncho

*Lento*

F. Eduardo Fabiani

*P.*

*rit.* *largo* *Presto*

*rit.* *p*

*(ff)* *p*

Po-bre mi por que vie-jo

Ja lo es ta ha olvida do

pa-ra que se o-ra-ra lo he-be-ja do

es-tu-dia-del cor-co y fue-go de-v-na no-due-la in-tem-

-pe- - - - - nie A-ma-ne.

LENTO

-ciò cu-bier-to de ro-ci-o Hu-me-do de al-bo-

-ra-da Hu-me-do-yes-ti-ra-do Co-mo si el

cresc. (mf)

*rit*  
*view-to. se be-hu-bie-ra pues-to-*

*rit.*

*Pa-bre mi*

*vie-ja*

*Ya lo es-tar ba d'vi-da-do*

"EL PONCHO" BY EDUARDO FABINI

This is one of the well-known songs by the gifted composer Eduardo Fabini, who uses Uruguayan folk themes.

tresses of her hair lying entangled and, as thy left hand caresses her neck, thy right hand shall smooth those tresses, and caressing them thou shalt ever hear the sweetest harmonies faithfully sounding and recording the pictures of thy brain, and the passions, sorrows, and joys of thy heart.'” Such was the legendary birth of our national instrument and of our *payador* (a *payador* is an inpromptu versifier on any given subject, the verses being sung to simple chords and runs on the guitar). In colonial days, *payadas* (two *payadores* calling to and answering one another) were one of the most popular amusements, attracting large and enthusiastic crowds as listeners.

As the Spanish-speaking Gauchos also belong to Argentina, naturally Uruguayan folk music does not stand entirely apart. I believe we can truly claim only one theme as our very own, that being the music of the native round dance called the *pericón*. This has been proven to be Uruguayan, since many of the different figures were danced in Uruguay long before anywhere else. As for folk songs, we have the *estilos*, *vidalitas*, *milongas*, and *zambas*, and as dances, besides the well-known River Plate tango, the *zamba*, *gato*, *cielito*, and *ranchera*.

It is probable that many of our first themes are lost, as a century ago the Gaucho simply sang to chords played on the guitar, almost in a recitative. We can trace the Spanish influence in the measure of his improvised poetry, since many verses had four lines, each of eight syllables, somewhat like the *cuartillas* or *cantares*. Later came the *estilos*, verses of 10 lines and also the *vidalita* of 4 lines with the word *vidalita* (an exclamation which may signify diverse feelings or emotions), occurring between every line, also the *tristes*. These themes, like all folk music, are beautiful in their simplicity; they use many minor intervals. In the *estilo*, as in the *vidalita*, the penultimate chord in relative mediant tone is held as long as the performer wishes and ends in the diatonic pure and simple.

The *pericón*, in three-quarter time of great simplicity, has been preserved to us by the ability of one of our native artists, Prof. Gerardo Grasso, who transcribed it for piano score. There have been other versions, one score with variations for band by L. Díaz, one by this writer, and lately a very beautiful and intricate one by Cluzeau Mortet (modern folk music composer). He wrote it on the old theme as a gift to the eminent pianist Arthur Rubenstein who, charmed by the air and rhythm, wished to include a *pericón* in his concert repertoire.

We can not think of folk music without sending a grateful thought to our pioneer actor, not only in Uruguay, but also in the whole River Plate region. This is Don José J. Podestá, still living at a ripe old age. He, with his four brothers, built the foundation of our national drama, acting and singing his way into the hearts of his people with his renditions of music on the guitar in the native style. One of this



writer's most precious memories is having met him when she was a child, and enjoyed his inimitable native art.

Probably the first martial music to be heard in Uruguay was the patriotic strains of bugles and cornets in 1816, during our struggle for independence, and the first lyrics when our first lyric theater was opened in 1824. In the same year the first pianos arrived from the old world; this instrument, we can assert, was subsequently welcomed into the majority of the homes. In 1825 war reigned and our music was hushed, only to be revived with enthusiasm after we became an independent nation in that year. Our first symphony orchestra was then developed under the able direction of Antonio Sáenz, composer and musician. Spain and Italy sent us their artists and we enjoyed the grand operas of the times, but to Antonio Sáenz we owe the first musical institution founded in Montevideo. Everything pertaining to music was taught in this school, and from it came forth our first real Uruguayan musician. A splendid musical library was attached to the conservatory.

We should mention in this early period the birth of our national anthem. According to history, this was first picked out on the guitar by an amateur named Quijano, who called it *Canto Patriótico*. The first written score was arranged by Prof. Bernardino Barrios, flutist and composer. When Acuña de Figueroa wrote the words for our hymn, Maestro Luis Smolzi arranged the music for it, but later, in 1845, when the poem was revised and officially adopted, the music was altered and instrumented by Prof. José Debali.

But it was in the year 1856 that the inauguration of the *Teatro Solís*, our own opera house (still much used) gave the great impulse to our study of music. Orchestras were formed and the cultivation of voices was very widespread, culminating in the founding of our native conservatory, La Lira, followed soon after by the opening of the Instituto Verdi, the latter being directed by its owner, the national composer Don Luis Sambucetti. It is evident that at this period we began to see that our music should be preserved and enjoyed. The conservatories were producing promising pupils, Italian and Spanish maestros came to stay in the new country and gave generously of their knowledge and art in the new field opening before them. There they found willing, eager youths, born with the love of music in their veins, who reverently enjoyed the works of old and new masters of the universal art.

In 1858 Tomás Giribaldi was born; 20 years later he was to reveal himself as our first great maestro and inspired composer. A pupil of Stringelli and Bottesini, he left to the world many works, amongst them a 4-act grand opera *Parisina*; *Manfredo di Sveria*, in five acts; *Inés de Castro*, in four acts; and *Magda*, in three acts; also many symphonies, of which *Ateneo* and *Escenas Militares* are well known;

## Del Camino

Moderato.

Vicente Ascone

Handwritten musical score for "Vida-Li-Ta" by J. P. Arriaga. The score is written on ten staves, featuring vocal lines and piano accompaniment. The key signature is one flat (B-flat), and the time signature is 4/4. The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, accidentals, and dynamic markings like "mf." and "p.". The lyrics are written below the vocal lines, including "na - die la to - ca", "Vi - da - li - ta", "La - qui - to - na mi - a", "Se van los con - so -", "lla Vi - da - li - ta Se marcho con e - lla", "Vi - da - li - ta To - da mi - la - gri -". The score is marked with "Canto" and "Canto" at the end of the first and second systems respectively. The tempo is marked "Andante".

(Recit) *Pajato! Chingolo! buay* *Huella Huella.*

*a* *(f)* *(3)* *(affatt.)* *tau tau.* *(rall)*

*Quiero saber que di-a Vi-da-li-tá No nel-oy des-pier-ta*

*(f)* *(3)* *(3)* *(3)*

*En-tre suc-cor-da-je, Vi-da-li-tá I-lu-sio-nen-nue-vas*

*(Recit)* *(riten)*

*Pajato! Chingolo! buay Huella Huella (bajando la voz)*

*(a tempo)* *¡Inimicus Clavator!*

*(f)* *(rall poco)*

"DEL CAMINO" BY VICENTE ASCONE

This is a development by a contemporary composer of an Uruguayan *Vidalita*

and a beautiful orchestral work on Detaille's painting *Le Rève*. A composer of austere sincerity and intense feeling, he wrote with a vigorous dramatic coloring which was influenced slightly by the pure harmonies of the Italian school.

The second of our trio of great masters was Don Luis Sambucetti (1860-1926), author of the grand opera *San Francisco de Asís*, a work which won the gold medal at the Milan Exhibition in 1906, and of many others, including *Indiana*, *Suite*, *Antoine*, and *Vieux Carillons*, besides concertos and quintettes for flutes and violins, which are considered notable scores.

In 1877, León Ribeiro, one of the directors of the old conservatory, La Lira, began to devote himself to composition and displayed a vigorous artistic temperament. A perfect technician and a splendid interpreter of the lyric drama, he devoted his last years to the completion of the intensely beautiful *Liropeya*, his master work.

These three maestri form our national trilogy of classic composers, though the works of Dalmiro Costa, written from 1860 to 1895, are conceptions marked by genius, even at times by audacity. His songs without words are especially delicate in their melancholy strains and are amongst the richest of our native works.

In later years we have had the more modern works of Alfonso Broqua and Rodríguez Soca, the latter being the author of the opera *Alda*, which had its première in Milan. Broqua, who resides chiefly in France and who was a pupil in the Schola Cantorum in Paris, shows a marked French romantic style in his musical writings. His best work is undoubtedly the dramatic and descriptive symphonic score to the epic poem *Tabaré* by our late poet laureate Juan Zorrilla de San Martín.

About 1879, famous concert artists commenced to come to our shores, one of the first being the American composer Louis Gottschalk, who enthralled his hearers with his interpretations of his own characteristic compositions. Through the years since that period to the present time we have applauded the most eminent artists of the world.

Among the founders of our musical achievement, three more of our artists merit especial mention: Camilo Giucci, Italian-born pupil of Lizst, who directed the Franz Lizst Conservatory and who left his artistic heritage to his children; Virgilio Scarabelli, distinguished native violinist and conductor of the National Orchestra, who directs the Conservatorio Montevideo, and Vicente de Pablo, pianist, owner of the Conservatorio Uruguay.

The greatest artistic development known in our history came about through the initiative of Don Luis Sambucetti and our President Don Claudio Williman, under whose guidance the state cooperated in the founding of our National Symphony Orchestra. This was the first

## Bajo el Alero de las Pestañas

*Andante* (♩ = 104). (Luis Cluzeau Mortel)

A mi me que-tan las ni-nas tris-tes -

a mi me que-tan las ni-nas pá-li-das las de-a-par

-ci-bles o-jos obs-cu-ros don-de pe-reu-ne mis-tos ri-o-i

ma-dia- y las de mi-ra-das que me a-ca-rí-cian

ba-jo el a-le-ro de las pes-ta-nas -

## "BAJO EL ALERO DE LAS PESTAÑAS"

L. Cluzeau Mortel, a present-day composer, has given a haunting melody to one of Amado Nervo's poems.

opportunity, I believe, that Uruguayan composers had of hearing and conducting their own works, and it was a joy indeed. Among the first national composers on the programs we recall Sambucetti, Maino, Fabini, María Galli, María E. Vaz Ferreira, and the writer. The orchestra began to play in 1908 with early seasons of 90 consecutive nights and, although interrupted by events and consequences of the World War, it was reorganized in recent years and is now developing and broadcasting its semiweekly concerts. Next in order to the orchestra came our first chamber music association formed by Professors E. Fabini, violin; De Pablo, pianist A. Baños, 'cellist; and Fiammengo, viola. At the present time we have three chamber music clubs, each with large numbers of adherents and splendid groups of artists.

To-day, we may say that the highest place of honor amongst our composers is held by the creator and compiler of our native folk music, Eduardo Fabini. This artist is gifted with the most exquisite sentiment and purest inspiration among the Uruguayan writers of folk music in instrumental and symphonic form. As early as 1900, while a student of violin in Brussels where he won the gold medal of honor, he began to harmonize *tristes* for the guitar, and in 1907, inspired by the nature he knows and loves so well, he composed

# Zurciendo Hojas

Letra de  
Alfredo Maia Ferreira  
(Moderato)

LUIS PEDRO MONDINO

(mf)

Con a-gui-jas de na-russ y con la brida vien To - res -

-mien-dow se los anho-les fu-gaz-mien-te la co-pa - fu-gaz-mien-te la co-pa (a tempo) (rit.)

y es un juego de rinas lu-mi-no-sas es-te por-fia-de-que-ño de las ori-sas -

en-zur-cir de una vez to-das las ho-jas to-das las ho-jas (a tempo) (rit.)

jas

## "ZURCIENDO HOJAS"

A modern composition by Luis Pedro Mondino, whose work has been attracting much attention.

*Flores del Monte* and *Flores del Campo*. Since then he has continued to devote his time and inspiration to our folk music of the highest grade, climaxing his successes by producing *Campo*, probably the most perfect symphonic work on our folk music, *La Isla de los Ceibos*, and *La Melga*. These constitute the trio of his folk music symphonies to date and crown him as a world-famous artist. Never tiring, he has produced, and continues to produce, many beautiful folk songs, amongst them *El Poncho*, *La Güeya*, and *El Nido*, showing faithfully in all of them a profound knowledge and comprehension of native songs and a perfect instrumental technique.

To this generation also belongs L. Cluzeau Mortet, whose keen understanding of his native folk lore is permitting him to write works of value, songs and fantasias of haunting, pure melodic strains, among which we can recall the musical setting of Amado Nervo's beautiful poem *Bajo el Alero de las Pestañas*; also *Noche Blanca de Luna*, *Evocación*, *Criolla*, *Pericón*, and *Carreta Quemada*.

During these later years, many other composers have been busy. One is Vicente Ascone, who scored a triumph with his *Suite Uruguaya*, and whose latest work, a ballet called *La Carreta* (based on a poem from the pen of Víctor Pérez Petit), is a revelation to us. This had its première in August, 1932. Without losing for an instant the melody of our folk music, the richly colorful instrumentation and surprising orchestral effects permit this work to be classed with the most modern compositions and to belong to universal music. Pilades Stanpanoni (codirector of the Conservatorio Montevideo) has just completed a notable suite of new and harmonious instrumentation, which he modestly names *Impresiones Sinfónicas*. The young maestro Marotti, after writing many minor works, has recently published a suite for grand orchestra, entitled *No. 1*. Calavecchia, bandmaster of the Municipal Band, shows his inspiration in the symphonic works *Uruguay* and *Pre'udio*. And amongst the most prolific composers is Félix Peyrallo, concert viola, founder of the Centro Enciclopédico, whose chorus and orchestra he conducts. He has written many beautiful works, especially choruses; the best is probably the centennial hymn *Uruguay*, composed in 1930 on the conclusion of the celebration of the first century of our independence. Among our very modern song writers we recall Luis Pedro Mondino, whose original songs are bringing him fame in Europe and his own country.

We also have our women composers, the most versatile probably being María Galli, whose valuable works, full of character, have brought her fame. A little Italian influence is discernible in her romances and songs. Her sonatas are inspired indeed, and her descriptive native themes, such as *Alborada* and *Cabalgada*, are truly worthy of admiration. To the same generation belongs the composer

Un Sogno

E. M. S. de Paté  
(Elisabetta.)

Moderato.

The musical score is written on five systems, each consisting of a piano (p) staff and a vocal (v) staff. The key signature is one sharp (F#) and the time signature is 4/4. The tempo is marked 'Moderato.' The score includes various musical notations such as notes, rests, and dynamic markings. The piano part features complex chordal textures and arpeggiated figures, while the vocal part consists of a single melodic line. The score is marked with dynamics including *fu* (forte), *mf* (mezzo-forte), and *f* (forte). There are also markings for *z* (possibly for a specific articulation or ornament) and *x* (possibly for a specific articulation or ornament). The score is signed 'E. M. S. de Paté' and '(Elisabetta.)' in the top right corner.





"UN SOGNO" BY E. M. S. DE PATE (ELISABETTA")

The score above and on the preceding page is part of a work for string quartette

who signs herself "Elisabetta," author of many minor pieces such as military marches and concert waltzes. It is considered that her best orchestral works are *Suite Uruguay-Italia* (where native airs mingle with Italian romance); *Elegia in Memoriam*, written in homage to our lost painter Carlos M. Herrera; *Gypsy* and *Un Sogno*, the latter for string quartette.

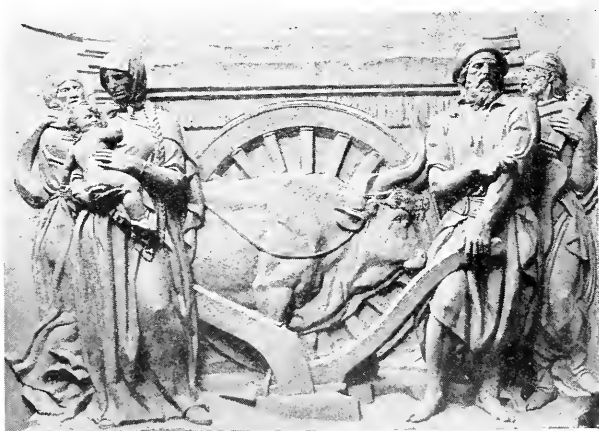
There are so many writers of music, typical and otherwise (as the production of popular native music is enormous), that we believe it is impossible, however pleasant the task might be, to give, in a few short notes, a lucid idea of our love of music in every form or to name all those who have contributed to it. Since our country is bathed by the ocean, a circumstance which in the life of a nation entails communication, travel, and progress, the influence of other nationalities filters in. While it unites us with the uplifting spirit of the great old masters of Europe, we still, in many cases, write in typically Uruguayan fashion. It even seems probable that our music may develop a still more truly native character, acknowledging more and more the beauty of the descriptive airs which have been handed down to us in simple form and are being developed into immortal works by men like Fabini, Mortet, Ascone, and others.

As for vocal music, singing comes to us easily and naturally from the Gaucho who in bygone days so softly plucked his guitar and so cleverly voiced his thoughts as a *payador*. Enriched by education and culture, the Gaucho persisted through the years, the same blood running through his veins, mixed with the heritage from old Spain and Italy; his song lived through the struggles on the broad plains and valleys of the "Purple Land," finally filtering into the cities through the conservatories and universities. The amalgamation of

races from all climes, the vigorous blood that pulses under the Southern Cross, has produced full-throated human songbirds, and it is of interest to note that in the female voices, the mezzos and contraltos are balanced in number with the sopranos.

It can be said of Uruguayans that "we sing because we love to sing," and it is almost impossible to find a home, however modest, in which folklore is not loved and where music does not reign in some form. Choral work is highly developed, especially in Montevideo, the oldest and largest association being La Coral which, directed first by Kolischer, now has as conductor Carlos Correa Luna. Risler, Rubenstein, Koschetz, and E. D'Hors have passed judgment in praise of this mixed chorus which the eminent kapellmeister, Felix Weingartner, conducted on three occasions, one program including Mozart's *Hostia* and Brahms's *Nanie*. At the conclusion he autographed his baton in a burst of admiring enthusiasm and presented it to the association.

Although Uruguay is rich in concert artists, we have spoken here principally of some of our composers, since these, even if they do not travel, can, from their homeland, send to all nations loving greetings, becoming faithful messengers of the sentiments of a race and speaking to everyone in that universal tongue, a language, all its own, understood by every human being on earth—MUSIC.



# MEDICAL RESEARCH IN LATIN AMERICA

By A. A. MOLL, Ph. D.

*Scientific Editor, Pan American Sanitary Bureau*

ENDOWED as all medical history is with a charm of its own, some of its most fascinating and romantic as well as dramatic pages in the investigative and also the more immediately practical fields have been written in the Latin section of the New World. Carrión\* stands out to this day as the prototype of medical research, who, in the pursuit of truth and in his love for humanity, does not stop even at self-sacrifice, and almost in the same category we must place Miguel Otero, Lazear, and Ricketts,\* as well as Noguchi, who lost his life in Africa while completing studies begun in America. In addition, some medical events staged in the Western Hemisphere, for instance, the discovery of cinchona and the conquest of yellow fever and hookworm disease, are epoch-making deeds. The use of the Countess's powder inaugurates the era of scientific medication, and Finlay's\* theory and its confirmation by Reed\* and his group herald the advent of modern mass sanitation and the reclamation of the Tropics for the white race. Finally, the creation of national laboratories, second to none in the world, and the development of a body of trained research workers speak eloquently of the fostering of the scientific spirit, which is one of the cornerstones of human progress.

## I. THE PAST

*The Indian treasure house.*—The Indians must have had but the barest idea of the wealth of curative material that they could offer their conquerors. Rich as the Potosi mines proved, their value could not approach that contained in the depths of the New World forests. Even leaving aside quinine, or rather, cascarilla, never before or afterwards in history has there been sprung suddenly upon the world such a collection of remedies as those found in America—cannabis indica, castor oil, chaparro, chenopodium, coca, condurango, copal, curare, damiana, guaiac, hualtata, ipecac, jaborandi, jalap, krameria, mandragora, the misnamed Peruvian balsam, sabadilla, sarsaparilla, Tolu balsam, vervain.<sup>1</sup> Imperfectly deciphered monuments and records testify to the aboriginal knowledge of rubber syringes, circumcision, trephining, and embryotomy, as well as of embalming, cremation,

\*The scientists of modern times will be discussed in the second part of this article, which the BULLETIN will have the privilege of publishing in the next issue.—EDITOR.

<sup>1</sup> After this imposing list, it is almost amazing to see how little the mineral kingdom of the Indies contributed to the medical armamentarium.

and surgical measures for pterygion and trachoma. How deep their medical lore actually was must remain largely a matter of conjecture. Some have even doubted their knowing the antimalarial properties of the Loxa bark. Others credit them with the introduction of fever therapy in general paralysis.

The Aztecs, for whom disease was, as for the Greeks, a divine punishment, had already connected some ills, such as rheumatism, colds, and gout, with chilling and dampness; others with the abuse of drink and sexual contact. They also had some ideas of contagion and had formed a group of infectious diseases, including epidemics. In fact, one favorite method of getting rid of a disease was by passing it on to some stranger or enemy. Diet was depended on a great deal. Isolation was enforced, especially against skin troubles. Martial made fun of the Egyptians who could find gods in their back yards. The Aztecs had only to go on the open street to find drug sellers. Moctezuma's botanical garden, so highly praised by Prescott, could furnish practically any herb prescribed by doctors. There was at least one plant against practically every disease and any number of remedies against bleeding, diarrhœa, and parasites. Thus Hernández learned from Mexican Indians the names of over 3,000 plants used by them in treatment.

*Spain's medical status.*—The Spaniards have been reproached rather unjustly with failing to derive the fullest scientific advantage from their early dealings with the Indians. The pages of the *cronistas* bear eloquent testimony to the contrary. Even Columbus exhibited from the very beginning a most meritorious, if untrained, curiosity into the products of the New World and their possible use in medicine as well as trade.<sup>2</sup> Álvarez Chanca, the physician who went along on his second trip, was undoubtedly the first medical man to study the diseases of the Indians, and possibly to report scurvy. The Conquistadores can hardly be blamed for not leaving behind a more perfect record; their deficiencies were the unavoidable consequence of their times. Medical science drowsed then in a condition of chaos from which the Renaissance was about to show the way out. The first germ had still to wait nearly two centuries to be seen and over three centuries to be identified. The microscope had not been discovered, and almost two centuries elapsed before Kircher used it for the investigation of disease. Smallpox, measles, scarlet fever, and diphtheria had not been differentiated. Typhus fever, typhoid fever, malaria, and influenza were vague entities, disguised under various names, such as *chavalongo*, *chucho*, *modorra*, etc. Under those con-

<sup>2</sup> The references to drugs on the part of Columbus and Peter Martyr de Angleria are purely incidental, although the latter mentions guaiac as a remedy against the "French disease" and the poisonous properties of the manzanillo tree. From a trip to Brazil, Yáñez Pinzón brought canna fistula. A discovery of greater importance was that of coca by Vespuccio, to be described first by Monardes and more methodically by Plukenet and Jussieu.

ditions it is easy to see how, even to this day, we lack conclusive data as to the pre-Columbian existence in the New World of such diseases as malaria, smallpox, leprosy, and typhus fever; while the origin of both syphilis and yellow fever will probably remain a source of dispute through the centuries, although modern research tends to free America from blame for the introduction of either scourge.

To paraphrase one of Cajal's purple passages, the wheel of science had not fallen as yet off the chariot of Iberic culture.<sup>3</sup> There were already seven universities in the country, one dating from 1214, and others were soon to be founded.<sup>4</sup> Palencia had had a chair of anatomy since 1240 and Lérida had been (1391) among the first European universities to authorize public autopsies. Spain had also led the whole world in creating schools for deaf mutes and the blind. Toledo proved for several centuries both the repository and distributing center of Arabic culture. Arnold of Vilanova and Raymond Lull maintained and revived the Aristotelian tradition of encyclopedical knowledge. Mérida had a hospital (580) centuries before one was built in England (St. Albans, 794).<sup>5</sup> The great Isabella had organized the first field army hospitals, and the military orders probably had them as early as the XIIth century. The insane asylums at Seville, Saragossa, and Valencia not only were among the very first in Europe, but paved the way in the humane care of patients. An Aragonese physician was soon to describe, fully a century before Harvey, the circulation of the blood, already anticipated by the Cordovan Averroes. The Spanish monarchs called to their side the best physicians in the land, such as Gutiérrez, Torella, Villalobo, Laguna, Lobera, Montaña, Mercado, Valléz, and, in addition, invited to the court foreigners such as the great Vesalius. It may be recalled that, while there were no physicians on the *Mayflower*, Columbus, Cortez, Magalhães, Balboa, and Mendoza carried medical men on their ships,<sup>6</sup> and, in the 1492 agreement, Columbus was specifically required to do so.

*Early research.*—American research entered an orderly and promising phase with the advent of the first official *cronista*, Oviedo, who made not fewer than eight trips to America, where he filled a number of important positions. Not only did he describe and draw medicinal plants but pointed out their alleged healing virtues, devoting to the subject four books of his *Historia General y Natural de las Indias* (1535). Don Gonzalo is entitled to more than passing recognition in medical history, since the remarks on bubas (yaws) in his *Sumario*

<sup>3</sup> The XVIth century is precisely the golden age of Spanish medicine, and Valladolid, with Montpellier and Bologna, was one of the three great centers of medical study.

<sup>4</sup> Salamanca University was founded several years before Oxford received her first charter.

<sup>5</sup> Thus history repeats itself, as the first Latin American hospital, that in Santo Domingo (1503 or earlier) antedated by many years the first hospital in the English colonies (Long Island, 1663).

<sup>6</sup> Sebastian Cabot was explicitly ordered to carry physicians and druggists on his trip to South America in 1536.

(1526) mark the beginning of tropical medicine, and his statements, with the later ones (1542) of Díaz de la Isla, initiated the bitter age-old controversy as to the origin of syphilis.

Monardes, a Seville physician of Italian extraction (1508-1588), went farther into the study of American plants and, although he never crossed the ocean, built the first garden devoted to plants from the New World. The wealth of material accumulated by him was embodied in two books published in 1565 (*De las Drogas de las Indias*) and 1574 (*Historia Medicinal de las cosas que se traen de Nuestras Indias Occidentales*), which became a classic on the subject for several centuries and was translated into various languages. Another and higher milestone is represented by the researches of Hernández (1514-1587), Philip II's own physician, who spent seven years (1571-1577) in Mexico, on the first American scientific expedition. Through a series of mishaps, Hernández's monumental work (*Historia Natural de las Indias*), in 17 volumes remained unpublished for two centuries and known only through mutilated versions. Poor Hernández had the grief of seeing his painstaking tomes buried with their splendid illustrations in the Escorial vaults where fire was eventually to destroy them.<sup>7</sup>

*Mexican priority.*—Mexico, where Hernández labored so well, had (1580) the first chair of medicine in the New World<sup>8</sup> and one of the first two universities. It also witnessed as early as 1576 the first necropsies in the New World, and its first professor of medicine, de la Fuente, deserves credit for some pathological studies in cases of typhus fever. The first chair of anatomy there dated from 1621, although the teaching of this subject was very deficient until much later.<sup>9</sup> It was perhaps only natural that the first medical books published in America should also appear in the old Aztec capital. Francisco Bravo's *Opera Medicinalia* (1570) and Alphonso López's *Summa y Recopilación de Cirujia* (1578) were written by Spaniards; but Fray Agustín Farfán's *Tractado Breue de Chirugia* (1592) had

<sup>7</sup> Until its official publication in 1791, Hernández's work was known only through incomplete transcriptions such as Ximenes' (1615) and Recchi's (1651). Another of Philip's physicians, Fragoso or Fragosa, was also to write, but at long range, on *Las cosas aromáticas, árboles y otras medicinas simples que se traen de las Indias*.

<sup>8</sup> Medicine, however, had been taught at the University of Santo Tomás in Santo Domingo since 1538 and in Mexico in the two schools for Indians organized by Bishop Zumárraga and Pedro de Gante. The Lima school (authorized in 1551) dates from 1621, if not 1638; that of Caracas from 1721 (actually 1763); Habana, 1728; Bogota, 1758 or 1760 (the Rosario College has existed since 1652); Chile, 1769 (professor appointed in 1756); Quito, 1787 (actually 1791-92); Buenos Aires, 1801; Guatemala, 1805 (Florez became teacher of medical anatomy about 1785); Bahia and Rio de Janeiro, 1808; León, Nicaragua, 1811-12, Puerto Rico (classes), 1816; Bolivia (classes), 1827; San Salvador, 1847; Haiti, 1860; Costa Rica, 1874; Montevideo, 1875; Asuncion, 1898. Especially in the early times, such institutions were mere shells, if not pretenses. Practically all these schools had to be reorganized and almost recreated after the wars of independence.

<sup>9</sup> The Spanish Government authorized only reluctantly the study of anatomy even in the mother country itself; for example, in Chile, despite frequent requests to that effect, permission to create a chair of anatomy was given only in 1773, and in Buenos Aires, in 1801; in Lima, the amphitheater had to wait until 1792.

for its author a Mexican, one of the first medical graduates (1567)<sup>10</sup> in the University. Benavides' *Secretos de Chirurgia* was written in Mexico but published in Spain in 1567. In Cuba the first medical book dates from 1707; in Guatemala, from 1782; in Brazil, from 1808; in Puerto Rico, from 1866. Medical pamphlets were published in in Caracas in 1804; in Buenos Aires, in 1805; in Chile, in 1820.<sup>11</sup> It may be well to add here that the first survey of a sanitary nature in the New World was that ordered by Philip II in 1577, asking, among other things, for data on the increase or decrease of the Indian population and causes of this change. By 1599 the Viceroy Márquez de Salinas had a census of Lima made, and, in 1612, Herrera did likewise with the Indians in the Rio de la Plata region. At Quito censuses were taken in 1645 and 1757. The first hospital statistics published in America were also probably those appearing in the *Gaceta de México* in 1785. In Mexico, too, her great viceroys, Bucareli and Revilla-Gigedo, in the latter part of the XVIIIth century, had censuses made of inhabitants, property, and occupants.

The first Cæsarean section in the New World (1779) seems also to have been a Mexican achievement, it having been performed by two friars at Santa Clara. Another was recorded in 1795. In Mexico, execution of the Cæsarean by even laymen was urged as a religious duty by the Viceroy Bucareli in 1772, following Charles III's 1749 pragmatic and the injunctions in the book published by a Neapolitan priest in 1745. These were of course post-mortem operations. In Venezuela a Cæsarean operation, probably the first on a live woman in the Western Hemisphere, was performed in 1820 by Ruiz Moreno, who also did the first lithotomy, the first embryotomy and other operations, and introduced smallpox vaccination into the country. The first Cæsarean in the United States was not performed until 1827, although the first Mexican operation may be assigned to this country, since Santa Clara is located in California. The first symphysiotomy was undoubtedly that at Mexico in 1784. In Argentina the first successful Cæsarean (mother and child surviving) dates only from the last decade of last century.

*Brazil.*—Medical knowledge about the present Portuguese-speaking part of America comes from a later date, but, even so, it is earlier than that of Inca-Araucan medical progress. During his rule of the Dutch possessions in South America (Guiana), Maurice of Nassau brought with him two prominent scientists, Willem Piso and George Marcgrave, who spent six years (1637–1643) exploring

<sup>10</sup> Dr. Pedro López was the first graduate, in 1553, his name being also entitled to remembrance as the founder of the first home for children in Mexico and probably in America (1582).

<sup>11</sup> The different dates of the introduction of printing, in itself a reflection of the growth and culture of the colony, had something to do with this: Mexico, 1540; Peru, 1584; Santo Domingo, 1600; Guatemala, 1660; Cuba, 1700; Paraguay, 1705; Colombia, 1738; Ecuador, 1755; Tucumán, 1766; Buenos Aires and Chile, 1780; Uruguay and Puerto Rico, 1807; Caracas and Rio de Janeiro, 1808; Panama, 1822.

the Brazilian coast. Their joint work appeared (1648) in Latin under the title *Historia Naturalis Brasiliae*, Piso calling his contribution *De Medicina Brasiliensi*. Another volume, *De Historiæ Naturalis et Medicæ Indiae Occidentalis*, dates from 1658. Piso must be considered one of the fathers of tropical medicine, as he takes up successively local diseases (fevers, dysenteries, hookworm disease, ulcers, and amœbic abscesses of the liver) and their remedies. The first to classify the marvelous Brazilian flora and fauna, thus providing the South American counterpart of Hernández's work, he also discussed parasitology before Redi did, inaugurated research about snakes, introduced necropsies and pathological studies in Brazil, and studied and treated successfully the *bicho do pe* (*Sarcopsylla penetrans*). This Dutch physician must likewise be credited with discovering the emetic and antidysenteric properties of ipecac. As Schiaffino has well brought out, Piso and Maregrave supply the connecting link between the work of Monardes and Hernández on Mexico and that of the Paraguayan missionaries.<sup>12</sup>

After Piso, medical lore about Brazil was practically nonexistent until Ferreira da Rosa's *Trattado Unico da Constituição Pestilencial de Pernambuco* (1694) and Rocha Pitta's description (1730) of the 1686 epidemic of a *bicha*, which seems to have been yellow fever. Ferreira da Rosa's book is a classic of tropical medicine giving the first account of yellow fever by a European physician, with a description of the first autopsy in a case. However, a layman, López Cogolludo, in his *Historia de Yucathan* (1688) had already described the 1648 *peste* in the Mexican peninsula.

*South American missions.*—The medical and sanitary phase of the task accomplished by the Jesuits in South America is entitled to full recognition, since, besides furnishing the Indians with medical and nursing care, as the Franciscans did in Mexico, they studied plants and classified anatomical and pharmaceutical knowledge.<sup>13</sup> Outstanding among their number are Father de Torres, who, on being appointed head of the missions in 1608, prescribed most elaborate and far-sighted instructions for the building of towns; Ruiz de Montoya (1588–1652), a remarkable linguist as well as nurse and apostle; and especially Montenegro (1663–1728), whose collected teachings served as a textbook on materia medica for several generations. Others, such as the historians del Techo, Pastor Lozano (who was one of the first to describe the cinchona tree and who also left a masterly essay on yerba maté), Sánchez Labrador, and Dobrizhoffer (1717–

<sup>12</sup> It is interesting to recall that Piso's Brazilian work took place in Bahia, where the first Brazilian medical school was organized, in 1808, and where the scientific study of tropical medicine was also to be initiated in the early part of the XXth century.

<sup>13</sup> Other orders, such as the Dominicans, organized the first medical schools, for instance, at Santo Domingo, Quito, etc.





Courtesy of the Library of Congress

# TITLE-PAGE OF THE "HISTORIA NATURALIS BRASILLIAE"

In addition to being a classic of tropical medicine, Piso's volume is a source of eternal joy to the bibliophile with its beautiful colored illustrations of American plants.

1791) compiled valuable data on the local flora and on outbreaks of disease.

*An epoch-making discovery.*—After such an intensive period of productive investigation, as the novelty wore off (but mostly as Spain settled into darkness under the reactionary Hapsburg régime),<sup>14</sup> an epoch of quiescence was to be expected. Yet it was during the twilight surrounding the XVIIth century that a happy train of circumstances led to the discovery of one of the supreme drugs of all times—cinchona. In spite of assertions to the contrary, the Quito Indians, or at least their caciques, must have known the healing properties of the *querango* bark they offered to cure, probably about 1630, the malarial fever prostrating the corregidor of the Province of Loxa, Juan López de Cañizares. By 1632 the Jesuit Cobo was already taking some bark to Spain and Rome. The popularity of the drug dates, however, from 1638, when it was used, at Cañizares' suggestion, to stop the chills which had made an invalid of Doña Francisca Henríquez de Ribera, the wife of the fourth Count of Chinchon, who was Viceroy of Peru at the time.<sup>15</sup> Linnæus proved himself a good courtier as well as a gallant scientist when he named the plant after the Countess instead of the corregidor or the cacique.

*French influence.*—The Loxa bark proved a magnet, drawing scientists to America in the hope both of studying it at close range and of finding similar treasures. La Condamine, who came with Juan and Ulloa's expedition (1735–1746), gave to the French Academy the first scientific description of the tree which the botanist Jussieu (1739) had been the first to describe. As a result of their two trips to South America (in 1777–78), Ruiz and Pavón compiled (1794) *La Flora del Perú y Chile*, followed (1798) by *Florae peruvianæ et chilenses* and *Sistema vegetabilium*, and other studies on krameria, calaguala, etc., and by Ruiz' *Quinología* (1792).

The French influence, thus initiated in South America, had made itself felt elsewhere even before. In Guadalupe, Fathers Breton and Du Tertre, in the second part of the XVIIIth century, gave descriptions of local diseases, including, perhaps, beriberi, and especially of the *coup de barre*; this description many consider the first account of yellow fever.<sup>16</sup> At Martinique, the yellow fever epidemic of 1722 was

<sup>14</sup> Philip II, in 1559, forbade any of his subjects to study abroad and put difficulties in the licensing of foreigners to practice in Spain, thus effectively cutting off scientific interchange. For a long time the practice of both surgery and medicine by one person was prohibited. As late as the XVIIIth century when Esquilache tried to have the streets of Madrid cleaned, the physicians opposed the measure, claiming that mephitic smells helped to improve public health. The American colonies fared even worse, the hospitals becoming the real medical schools. The establishment of printing presses was discouraged, as well as the entry of foreign books and journals. Unanue has left a masterly account of the disastrous condition of medicine and its teaching throughout Latin America.

<sup>15</sup> Her husband is also entitled to remembrance for urging the King to create two chairs of medicine in order to supply badly needed physicians for American towns.

<sup>16</sup> There is little doubt that the priority belongs to Ferreira da Rosa (1686).

described by Father Labat. Early in the XVIIIth century French physicians in Haiti drew attention to the occurrence of intestinal parasites, especially ascaris, and, about 1730, recognized that the undue prevalence of tetanus among the newborn was caused by some umbilical infection or pathological condition. Chevalier, in 1752, described the presence of filariasis (nowadays extinct there), yaws, and most probably leprosy. Desportes-Pouppée, in 1770, stressed the danger of residing in regions infested by mosquitoes, stating that these insects bred in stagnant waters. By 1785 Dazille blamed on neighboring swamps the greater occurrence of "habitual fevers" in certain Haitian towns, warned against the custom of keeping water barrels near the houses, and advised putting lime in swamps; and, finally, in 1800, Descourtilz, the author of *Flore des Antilles* (his work appeared in 1816) also raised his voice against stagnant waters as a cause of yellow fever, and urged the use of mosquito nets.<sup>17</sup>

The story of French influence, with its deep ramifications—political, scientific, and literary—in America, both North and South, justifies a long study. It was French explorers and pirates who first dented the solidity of the Spanish colonial empire. Even the physician who attended Bolívar in his last hours was from France.

To the list of French scientists connected with America must be added Father Feuillée, who published two books (1714, 1723) on medicinal plants of Peru and Chile, and Frezier, whose excursion lasted from 1712 to 1714. With Ruiz and Pavón's expedition to Chile (1790) came Doctor Dombey, who did such valuable work from both a research and medical standpoint that O'Higgins urged him, but unsuccessfully, to stay in the country. His name is justly borne by a number of Chilean plants. With Malaspina's mission (1794)<sup>18</sup> was another French botanist, Louis Née, most of whose studies on the natural history of Chile remain unpublished.<sup>19</sup> Among French physicians who left their mark during the XVIIIth century on Chile, we must also mention Lasevinat and especially Nevin, the most prominent Chilean physician of his time, who became the first professor of medicine (1756) at the Santiago University<sup>20</sup> and president of the protomedicate (examining board). With him we may join later men, such as Sazie, who lost his life caring for patients during the typhus epidemic of 1865, and Lafargue, who wrote an

<sup>17</sup> In the very first issue of the first medical journal published in Haiti, Delorme recommended, among other sanitary measures, the filling in of swamps in the neighborhood of Port au Prince.

<sup>18</sup> Malaspina's expedition had also been joined by the German scientist Haenke, who remained in South America until his death, in 1817, and who, in addition to collecting and describing plants, was one of the early practitioners and protagonists of vaccination in Bolivia.

<sup>19</sup> Some of the United States' earliest and greatest naturalists, including Long and Lesueur, were of French descent, a blood that at least four American presidents had in their veins. Thoreau and Agassiz were also of that same strain, and the pioneer, Audubon, not only was of French origin, but was born in Haiti.

<sup>20</sup> Nevin may have been of Irish extraction. His classes only began in 1769.

extensive and rather severe essay on health and medical conditions in Chile (1840-41). To the same nationality belonged the illustrious Dumont, who revived and almost introduced anatomy in Mexico about the middle of the XVIIth century, and Bompland (1773-1858) who, after visiting South America and Mexico with Humboldt, in 1798-1804, returned in 1816 to explore both Argentina and Paraguay and died in Uruguay, as if he wanted to connect his name with the three countries of the Rio de la Plata.<sup>21</sup> In Brazil we find, among the five founders of the Academy of Medicine, Faivres, and especially Sigaud, the organizer of the first Brazilian medical journals and author of that classic of American medicine, *Climate and Diseases of Brazil*, published, it may be noted, in French, in Paris (1844). A Pole, but



FRANCISCO JAVIER  
EUGENIO DE LA CRUZ  
Y ESPEJO

A champion of Pan Americanism, a martyr to his convictions, and a glory to medicine.

with French connections, was Chernoviz, author of the first Brazilian formulary and a *Diccionario de Medicina*, very popular among the masses. Mme. Durocher, who went to Rio in 1816, when 7 years old, deserves special notice, as hers was the first diploma granted by the newly organized medical school in 1832, and she was the only woman ever elected a member of the National Academy of Medicine

<sup>21</sup> The history of science hardly has a more pathetic career than that of Aimé Bompland (né Goujeaud), thus nicknamed by his father for his love of nature, trailed by a series of misfortunes throughout his life and even after death. After organizing the first botanical garden in Buenos Aires and being appointed there professor of natural history and materia medica, Bompland reintroduced the cultivation of yerba maté in Corrientes. His property and collections destroyed in a raid ordered by the tyrant, Francia, the scientist was held prisoner for over nine years in Paraguay, despite Bolívar's pleading. His new flourishing plantation was again razed in 1839. Bompland organized the Museum of Natural History of Corrientes, in 1845. While his embalmed body was lying in state, a drunkard, who happened by, stabbed it several times, mistaking for scornful silence the serenity of death.

until Mme. Curie's election in 1926.<sup>22</sup> With the French school we must also group Beauperthuy, a native of Guadalupe, who, as early as 1854, stated, in Venezuela, that his 14 years' study pointed out that mosquitoes were the cause of yellow fever and malaria and even mentioned the species with striped legs (*Aedes aegypti*) in connection with yellow fever.<sup>23</sup>

Under the auspices of Sigaud, who had a sightless daughter, a method for teaching the blind was introduced by Alves de Azevedo, who had studied in Paris, and shortly after his death in 1854 Sigaud organized the first institute for blind children in Brazil.

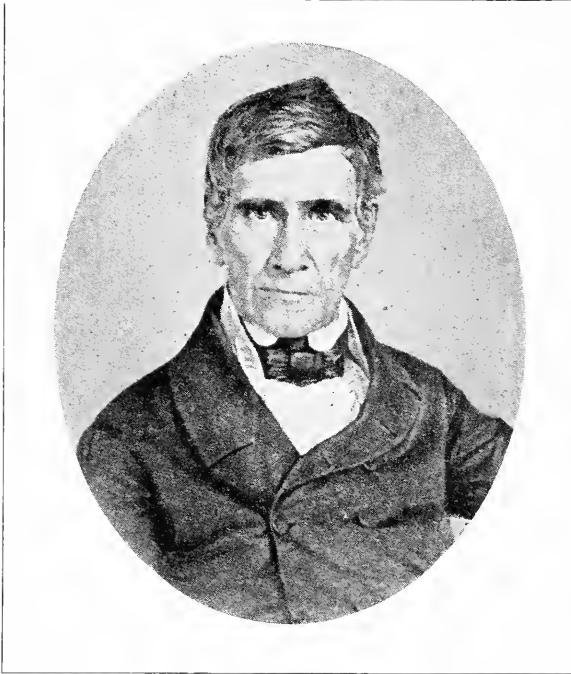
French influence was, however, going to be counterbalanced, in Chile, with the advent in the early part of the XIXth century of two of the country's most illustrious physicians—the Irishman Blest, who did so much for medical teaching and devoted himself earnestly to the study of Chilean diseases, and the Welshman Cox, a pioneer in health work. A contemporary of these men was Abbé Molina, a Chilean who spent most of his life in Italy where he published (1782) his *Saggio sulla Storia Naturale del Chile* and all his other works. Molina's industry was duly praised by Humboldt, and, altogether, he is the greatest scientist produced in colonial times in Chile. Next to him in scientific rank we should place Pedro Franco Dávila, of Guayaquil, who was appointed by Charles III Director of a Museum of Natural History at Madrid; and, especially, the versatile Mutis (1732–1808), a Colombian by adoption, who added so much to our knowledge of cinchona, and, justly praised by Linnæus, made his mark as a botanist, a physician, an astronomer, a linguist, and a sanitarian. He also furthered medical education and advocated smallpox inoculation in addition to developing a scientific school whose most prominent member was Caldas, distinguished alike as a botanist, an astronomer, a geologist, and a writer. A Brazilian, Ferreira Leal, after studying in Vienna, was invited by Pombal to become professor of materia medica and pharmacy at Coimbra.

*Awakening in the XVIIIth Century.*—The medical activity in the XVIIIth century embraced all parts of the mainland. A more

<sup>22</sup> Another French lady, who influenced the development of obstetrics in South America, was Mme. Fessel, a translation of whose work was published in Lima in 1827. Durand, another Frenchman (whose name is borne by a hospital), the first real professor of obstetrics (1822) in Buenos Aires (Fabre had given a course in 1805), was killed by a man whose wife, in labor, he was trying to save. The first licensed midwife in Argentina (1827) was also French, Véronique Pascal. The most famous midwife in Buenos Aires was, however, the native-born Doña Luisa Ravassi, who attended over 6,000 deliveries. In Mexico the first chair of obstetrics dates only from 1833; in Chile, from 1834, when it was in charge of the Frenchman Sazie.

<sup>23</sup> It detracts from Beauperthuy's merit that he extended his mosquito theory to a number of other diseases, as Nott, the New Orleans man, had done before him. He even considered yellow fever a variety of malaria and thought the mosquito brought from marshes the infectious matter. Beauperthuy felt that his doctrines should not be published until supported by further evidence. A world of distance separates Finlay's close-knit reasoning from Beauperthuy's loose theories. Among other French physicians in Venezuela was Juliac, the first to make in that country an autopsy on a yellow-fever case. His museum at Puerto Cabello was highly praised by Humboldt and Bompland.

enlightened rule in Spain, which then sent to the New World some of its best viceroys, served to prepare that group of American scientists so highly praised by Humboldt; some of them, alas, such as Caldas and Espejo, fated to fall martyrs to their patriotism.<sup>24</sup> In Mexico, this was the time that saw such men as Alzate, Serrano, Montaña establish the groundwork of modern medicine. Medical papers were published in the *Gaceta de México* (1722-1742), and the eminent Bartolache founded the first medical journal in all America, the *Mercurio Volante* (1772-73). The historiographer León lists 154



JOSÉ MARÍA VARGAS

The first and the greatest of Venezuelan surgeons and researchers, who also excelled in languages, mathematics, philosophy and theology, and even found time to be President of his country. Vargas was called by his father confessor the best man he had ever known.

medical works, dating from the XVIIIth century, in Mexico, and 315 from 1570 to 1833.

In South America three remarkable physicians preeminently embody the XVIIIth century spirit—Espejo, Vargas, and Unanue. Bolívar came too late to become acquainted with the man whose name remains one of the purest Ecuadorean glories and some of whose doctrines he fully shared and was to carry out,<sup>25</sup> but his fame shines all the brighter for his having been the steadfast friend of both Vargas

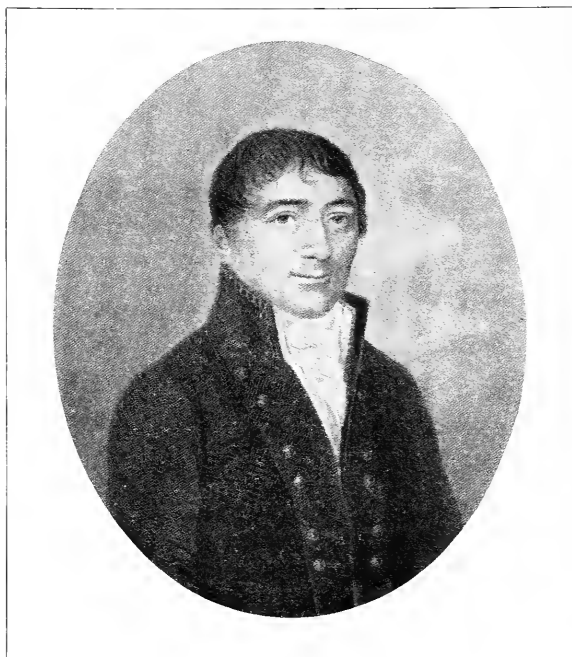
<sup>24</sup> The Inquisition burned at the stake both European physicians, such as the French Wandiere and Seniergues, and the Portuguese de la Vega, and local men, such as de Rivera, Quaresma, Silva, Maldonado.

<sup>25</sup> Espejo, perhaps, even to a greater extent than Bolívar, thought in continental terms, thus being one of the fathers of Pan Americanism.

and Unanue.<sup>26</sup> Espejo, of Indian descent and entirely a native product, was too many sided to center his efforts exclusively on medicine. He was the leading patriot in Ecuador and an effective polemist (if not a great writer), as well the first journalist and the first public librarian in his country. Appropriately enough his best essay is the one on smallpox inoculation. In an ironical and pitiless vein, which recalls that of Swift, he uses the occasion to report on health conditions in Quito and indict deficiencies in sanitation and hospitals while

JOSÉ HIPÓLITO  
UNANUE

He was justly called one of the fathers of American medicine, and his versatile brain also cultivated statesmanship, finance, philosophy, and oratory.



dealing with leprosy, venereal disease, tuberculosis, measles, and quacks.<sup>27</sup>

Unanue, a favorite pupil of the famous Moreno, has been called, and not idly, one of the fathers of American medicine. His work for the creation in 1792, of the Lima anatomical amphitheater for practical teaching of medicine, with the opening of the San Fernando medical

<sup>26</sup> With them we could also group Bello, who, in his youth, thought of studying medicine, translated several medical papers from French and English into Spanish, and left behind an essay on the origin of syphilis. This subject, we may add, also attracted the attention of Espejo, who held views similar to Bello's on the non-American source of the disease. We might perhaps mention with Bello his contemporary Larrañaga, the founder of the first public library in Montevideo, whose name is still borne by the founding asylum he opened in 1818, and who abandoned the study of medicine to become a priest, leaving behind a collection of unpublished first-hand observations in the field of natural history, a subject in which his prominence was recognized, even abroad.

<sup>27</sup> It is only fair to state that Espejo opposed inoculation but favored isolation.

school in 1811, makes him also one of the pioneers of medical research. His many gifts as a scholar, a cosmographer, a sociologist, an orator, and a statesman explain what he was able to accomplish directly for Peruvian and indirectly, by example, for American medicine. Unanue's *Observaciones sobre el Clima de Lima* (1806) (in which he studied topography, climatology, and most common diseases with their treatment) with his reports on dysentery, smallpox vaccine, bicho, tobacco, coca, human longevity, show how much he could have done had more normal times allowed him leisure to cultivate his investigative tastes.<sup>28</sup> In addition to a mutual connection with Bolívar, the remarkable Vargas (1786-1854), an English graduate, had a great deal in common with Unanue. It was on his shoulders that fell the task of reorganizing medical schools in Venezuela and of starting the new era of medical research with his studies, about 1828, of myiases, derrengadera, and dysenteries. His colleague, Hernández, the man to hold longest a professorship in Venezuela and first to organize boards of health in the country—to this day remembered as an example to his profession—wrote about the climate of Caracas in 1829.

While Argentina made a rather late start in the field of medical research, she was to make up her delay by rapid strides in more recent times. Her first protophysician, the Irish O'Gorman (a French graduate whose name was hispanized into Gorman), has to his credit the introduction of inoculation against smallpox, both in Spain and the Plata colonies (probably shortly after his arrival in 1777) and of issuing the first and most thorough instructions for the use of smallpox vaccine in 1805.<sup>29</sup> In the next generation, Muñiz (1795-1872) stands out, having discovered, about 1822, spontaneous cowpox in Argentine cattle. He was also the first native paleontologist, a correspondent of Darwin, and a leader in army hygiene, and finally fell a victim to yellow fever when, as an old man, he came to help the sick during an epidemic.

What Unanue, Vargas, O'Gorman, and Blest did for South America, Montaña achieved for Mexico. A chemist and a botanist, as well as a physician, he assumed the chair of clinical medicine, in 1806, thereby beginning the renaissance of medical teaching in his native land.<sup>30</sup> Muñoz, a rather original character, introduced humanized vaccine

<sup>28</sup> Unanue's house used to be called the meeting place of all scientists.

<sup>29</sup> While Charles IV's government should be praised for its enterprise in outfitting the celebrated expedition for bringing smallpox vaccine to the Spanish colonies, it is proper to recall that before its arrival the new method had been introduced almost accidentally in a number of places—by a French ship, in Cuba, in 1802; in Puerto Rico, from St. Thomas; in Venezuela, from Puerto Rico; in Peru, by a Spanish ship on her way to the Philippines; in Mexico, from Cuba and the United States; in Montevideo, in 1805, by a slave ship with some vaccinated negroes on the way to Bahia; in Buenos Aires, from Montevideo; in Chile, from Argentina. In Brazil the vaccine had been brought by Mendes Ribeiro as early as 1798, the very year when Jenner published his epoch-making paper. At Flores, Buenos Aires, the *pacará* tree under which the beloved dean, Doctor Seguírola, performed some of the earliest vaccinations in Argentina, is still shown.

<sup>30</sup> Montaña was unlucky enough to allow himself to be drawn into an attack on the great patriot, Hidalgo.



into Mexico, made a name for himself as an obstetrician and an ophthalmologist, and designed a number of instruments.<sup>31</sup>

The scientific development of Brazil began at a later date. Yet a contemporary of these men was Alvares Carneiro (1776–1837), the embodiment of the ideal healer, whose life reads like a romance. An orphan in his earliest childhood, reared by charity, he became a physician by sheer force of will. On his way to Europe in search of learning, he was captured by pirates and sold as a slave in Africa. Released by his master, whose daughter's life he had saved, he became a Portuguese ship's physician, traveling for experience's sake in Asia and Africa. Eventually he returned to Rio to become physician to the poor, whom he often paid instead of charging fees, and finally died of a fall from a horse on his way to treat a patient.

The newly won national independence, which seemed at first to muddle up things in the medical field, soon gave stimulus to research and education, as students began going to Europe and schools were reorganized on a wider basis. Pasteur's discoveries, after the middle of the century, also gave added impetus and orientation to the movement everywhere. Fresh laurels were to be gathered by Latin American medicine in this new period.

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<sup>31</sup> Muñoz, in spite of religious opposition, did not hesitate to divorce (separate) himself from his wife on his own authority, and in an emergency operated with high forceps on his own daughter, delivering a live fetus.



## AIR-MINDED LATIN AMERICA

By ADAM CARTER,  
*Pan American Union Staff*

TO be air-minded at the present time is, no doubt, a token of progressiveness. But to have been air-minded since the beginning of the century is indeed a mark of true foresight. That Latin America has earned such an honor may easily be seen if we hark back to the infancy, and even to the very cradle, of aviation.

A Latin American won a prize for being the first to circle the Eiffel Tower in a powered airship. That happened in 1901. Five years later, that same Latin American was decorated by the French Government for the invention of an airplane. The Alps and the Andes, which for many years remained unconquered by the airplane, were first crossed by Latin American pilots. Early in the history of aviation, the altitude record for the New World was held by a Latin American. And finally, a Latin American nation was the first in the world to have a successful commercial airway. This line is still in operation and covers now a route of almost 3,000 miles.

Many Latin Americans have earned a place in the honor roll of aviation's dead. That they gave their lives for a worthy cause is attested by the fact that their countries to-day are crossed by a network of air lines which is lengthier than that of the United States and at certain seasons of the year also surpasses the mileage of the European system.

The name of a Brazilian, Alberto Santos-Dumont, stands firmly linked to the beginnings of aviation. Santos-Dumont was born on a coffee plantation near Sao Paulo on July 20, 1873. As a boy, the novels of Jules Verne made him dwell in a marvelous world, and early in life, with the determination of all true dreamers, he began his efforts to make all those fancies of aerial navigation turn to fact.

He studied mechanics assiduously, made paper balloons and toy helicopters, and even conceived a dirigible.

His faith in aviation was so firm that it surprised him greatly, upon his first visit to Paris in 1898, to find that ships of the air were then no more than little-known curiosities.

In 1900 he began to build dirigibles. That his attitude was one of "science for science's sake" was proven the following year when he won the 100,000 francs offered by the French sportsman, Henri Deutsch de la Meurthe, for the first airship flight from the Parc d'Aérostation at St. Cloud to and around the Eiffel Tower and return

to the starting point within the maximum time of half an hour. Two-thirds of the prize money went to the poor of Paris and the rest to the airman's assistants.

In carrying out his experiments, Santos-Dumont not only went to great expense but also placed his life in jeopardy. The first elongated, motor-driven balloon he built began to collapse while descending after the first trial flight. To use his own language, ". . . the descent became a fall. Luckily, I was falling in the neighborhood of the grassy turf of Bagatelle, where some big boys were flying kites. A sudden idea struck me. I cried to them to grasp the end of my guide-rope, which had already touched the ground, and to run as fast as they could with it *against the wind*. They were bright young fellows and they grasped the idea and the rope at the same lucky instant. By the manoeuver we lessened the velocity of the fall, and so avoided what would otherwise have been a bad shaking up, to say the least. I was saved for the first time!"

His adventures in the air included forced landings on tree tops; falls in which a kind fate allowed him to escape alive while his craft burst open, "popping with a great noise, like a blown-up paper bag"; and, finally, success with his *Santos-Dumont No. 6*.

Later on, at the air base he had established in Neuilly, Santos-Dumont turned his attention to heavier-than-air craft. He built several airplanes, in the first of which he flew 220 meters in 21 seconds, at a height of 20 feet. This was the first public airplane flight ever made in the world, and for it Santos-Dumont was decorated by the French Government.

Afterwards, in a machine with a motor of about 20 horsepower and a fuel supply sufficient for only three-quarters of an hour, he



ALBERTO SANTOS DUMONT

One of the world's pioneers in aviation was a Brazilian, Santos Dumont, who invented a dirigible before turning his attention to heavier-than-air craft.

took to the air on several occasions and made a record flight of 12 miles.

In 1903 he piloted a dirigible over a military review at Longchamps, and was afterwards ridiculed for predicting that aerial warfare would be one of the most important phases of future military campaigns. During the Great War he made another prediction: "The airplane will be even more useful in peace than in war." It is truly regrettable that he should have died at 59, at the very time that his prediction was beginning to come true, especially since he was strongly opposed to the military use of aircraft and had protested against it to the League of Nations.

Brazil's claims to aeronautical honors are more than two centuries old. A Brazilian priest, Father Bartholomeu de Gusmão, invented a flying machine in 1709, 74 years before the Montgolfier brothers began their experiments with balloons.

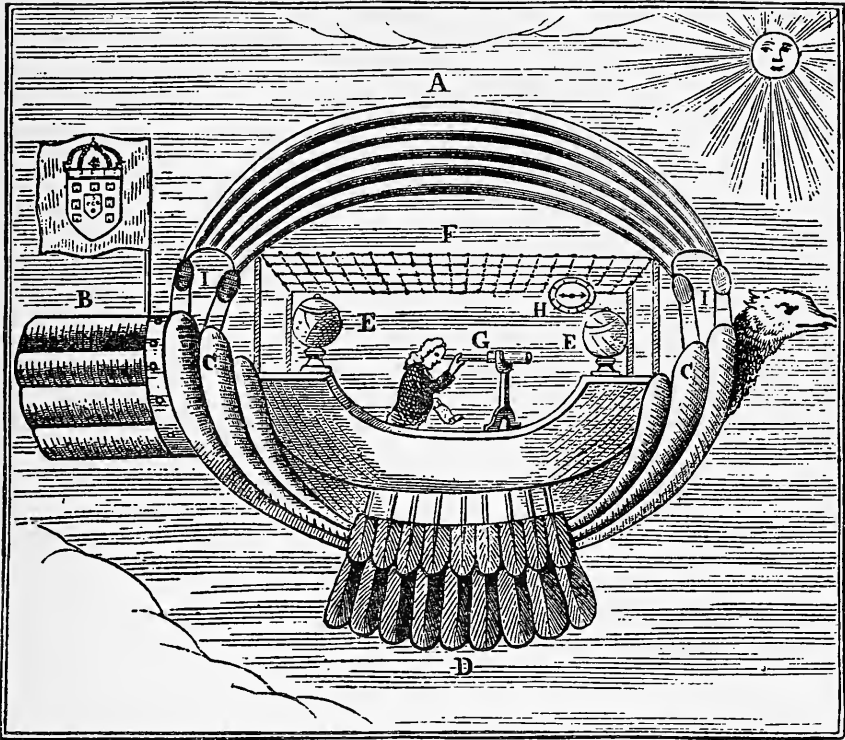
Details are lacking in regard to the construction of Father Gusmão's ship, but it is known that it was made of fine wooden boards, covered with iron sheeting, and fashioned in the shape of a bird, with wings and a sail on top, the head being the prow and the tail the rudder.

The "heart" and "blood" of the vessel, wherein lay the inventor's secret, were, respectively, two hollow metal balls, placed inside the machine, and what in our day would be known as some form of electromagnetic energy. Familiar words, these, in the twentieth century, but profound mysteries in 1709!

Father Gusmão's foresight and understanding of the usefulness of aerial navigation are clearly proven by a report on his invention which he submitted to His Majesty D. João V of Portugal: ". . . he has discovered an instrument with which it is possible to travel through the air in the same fashion as on land and sea and in much less time, it being feasible to advance two hundred or more leagues in one day. With these instruments, important messages could be carried to the armies . . . business men could send letters and goods to all cities . . . the Portuguese nation could have the glory of discovering the regions adjacent to the poles of the world. . . ." Might not reasons like these well be put forth by a modern airplane salesman?

The ship was constructed at the expense of the King of Portugal, and tried in the courtyard of the House of the Indies at Lisbon on April 19, 1709. *It rose to the height of the palace*, but crashed against the top of a wall and fell to earth. No new experiments were made, and Father Gusmão, ridiculed and persecuted by the Inquisition, fled to Spain, where he died in 1724 in abject poverty, his funeral being paid for by the Brotherhood of Saint Peter.

Adversity has frequently stalked the path of Latin American airmen. Jorge Chávez, a Peruvian, crashed to his death after completing the first successful flight ever made over the Alps. Jorge Newbery,



A FLYING SHIP OF 1709, INVENTION OF FATHER BARTHOLOMEU LOURENÇO DE GUSMÃO

The inventor, a Brazilian priest, sometimes referred to as Father Laurent, in petitioning the King of Portugal for exclusive rights for the manufacture and operation of the machine explained the drawing as follows: (A) Represents the sails wherewith the air is to be divided, which turn as they are directed. (B) The stern to govern the ship, that she may not run at random. (C) The body of the ship which is formed at both ends scollopwise; in the concavity of each is a pair of bellows, which must be blown when there is no wind. (D) Two wings which keep the ship upright. (E) The globes of heaven and earth containing in them attractive virtues. They are of metal, and serve for a cover to two loadstones, placed in them upon the pedestals, to draw the ship after them, the body of which is of thin iron plates, covered with straw mats, for conveniency of 10 or 11 men besides the artist. (F) A cover made of iron wire in form of a net, on which are fastened a good number of large amber beads, which by a secret operation will help to keep the ship aloft. And by the sun's heat the aforesaid mats that line the ship will be drawn toward the amber beads. (G) The artist who, by the help of the celestial globe, a sea map, and compass takes the height of the sun, thereby to find out the spot of land over which they are on the globe of the earth. (H) The compass to direct them in their way. (I) The pulleys and ropes that serve to hoist or furl the sails.

an Argentine, held the altitude record for the New World when he was killed during an attempt to cross the Andes.

As early as 1908, Jorge Chávez, who was then 21 years old, had won distinction in the air. That year he set an altitude record of more than 5,900 feet at Blackpool, England. Afterwards, at Issy-les-Moulineaux, France, he rose to 8,790 feet. On September 23, 1910, he took off from Brigue, Switzerland, and in 43 minutes, by way of the Simplon Pass, crossed the Alps to Domodossola, Italy, reaching during his flight an altitude of some 10,500 feet. A faulty landing at Domodossola wrecked his plane and injured him so severely that he died

four days later. To-day his memory is perpetuated not only by his own country but also by Switzerland and Italy. The airdrome at Las Palmas, near Lima, bears his name; two monuments rise in his honor at Brigüe, one in the main square and another at the airdrome from which he started his wonderful flight; and in September, 1925, a magnificent monument to him was erected at Domodossola, at the inauguration of which King Victor Emmanuel III was present.

During 1913 and 1914 the aerial exploits of Jorge Newbery had carried his name far and wide throughout Latin America. He held what was then the altitude record for the New World—14,436 feet.

On March 1, 1914, after months of laborious study of topography and atmospheric conditions, he set out to cross the Andes. An accident, which occurred shortly after his departure from Mendoza, Argentina, sent him down to his death. His companion, Benjamín Jiménez Lastra, was severely injured, but eventually recovered.

Flights over the Andes are now an everyday occurrence, but for many years aviation found in those lofty peaks an impassable barrier.

As early as 1912, airmen were trying to overcome this mighty range. In December, 1913, the Chilean Clodomiro Figueroa, who had studied aviation in France, and at that time held the South American records for distance, speed, and time of flight, made three separate attempts to cross, following the route of the Uspallata Pass, but failed because his engine was not sufficiently powerful. To this same cause may be ascribed the failure of the Argentine Teodoro Fels, who made several remarkable flights in 1914.

The first aerial voyage over the Andes was made in a balloon, in 1916, by two Argentines, Captain Zuloaga, of the national army, and Engineer Bradley. They took off from the Chilean side and landed near Mendoza. Their time was less than four hours, and the maximum elevation reached 26,000 feet. The daring aeronauts were decorated "Pour le Mérit" by the President of Chile.

The development of better motors made other fliers take up the challenge of the Andean range, which, after claiming the lives of some pilots, and compelling others to turn back, finally bowed to the airplane on April 15, 1918. This first crossing was made by Lieut. Luis F. Candelaria, of the Argentine Military Naval School. Lieutenant Candelaria took off from Zapalas, Argentina, and landed at Curico, Chile, 112 miles away. The maximum elevation reached was 10,500 feet.

On December 12, 1918, Lieut. Dagoberto Godoy, of the Chilean Army, made the first crossing from Chile to Argentina. During his memorable flight, which began at Santiago and ended at Mendoza, lasting an hour and thirty-five minutes, he reached an elevation of 17,300 feet and skirted the Tupungato, an extinct volcano which

risers to some 21,000 feet. The best possible account of this wonderful achievement is that given to us by the flier himself:

"At last I was to get a bird's-eye view of the peaks upon which I had so often gazed from the track of my airdrome. The plane mounted into space for a time. I had not yet looked downward. I had to watch my altimeter, my compass, the regular throbs of the oil engine, and the revolutions of the motor. I had to change the carburization continually and regulate the motor; and then, when my altimeter had passed 17,000 feet, I looked downward.

"I was in an unknown world. The mountain range stood out wonderfully clear; everywhere were canyons, immense black-mouthed valleys, gentle foothills, and icy slopes. At the left Tupungato rose near me to my own height, or perhaps higher, like an enormous skyscraper, a magnificent yet graceful tower rearing itself toward heaven. On one side it had a long, gradual, almost horizontal slope, like a palm of the hand, white and frozen, but hospitable, inviting me to alight and linger. But the impression was fleeting. I was going 180 or 190 kilometers an hour, hence the scenery altered rapidly. A moment later I crossed the frontier. My country was behind me; before me lay the sister nation and triumph—my slight but longed-for victory.

"At that moment the motor missed and nearly stopped. I guessed what was the matter: The automatic engine was not working and the gasoline could not reach the carburetor. I worked an instant and the engine and rotary started up again before the change had affected the apparatus. I had to land. So I lessened the supply of gas slightly and began to descend slowly. The needle, which had reached a maximum of 17,300 feet, gradually lowered. Then began the battle, which lasted perhaps three or four minutes. The plane seemed to be crazy. That morning there had been a windstorm on the Argentine side. Perhaps that was the result of the cyclone. Then—calm again. And there in the distance amongst the far-away foothills, insignificant when contrasted with the huge bulks I had just left, rose the outline of Mendoza, beyond the great plain, covered by a heavy veil of clouds.

"Ten minutes later I was over the historic city. . . . I came to ground a little worn, my hands knotted from the cold, still rather uncomfortable from the rarity of the atmosphere in the heights, as I had not carried oxygen with me. I sprang to the ground and experienced a new, awesome emotion: I had realized the fulfillment of my dream—I had crossed the Andes."

At that time, Lieutenant Godoy expressed the opinion that the establishment of regular trans-Andean airplane services between Argentina and Chile was a "comparatively easy" task. That cer-

tainly was not the case at the time of his flight, but the passage of a few years has proven that he was right.

During April, 1919, another Chilean airman, Lieut. Armando Cortinez, made the first Andean aerial round trip—Santiago-Mendoza-Santiago, with a stop of several days at Mendoza.

New glory was given to Argentine aviation in March, 1920, by Captains Parodi and Zanni, of the national army, and Naval Lieut. Marcos Zar. Parodi and Zanni left Los Tamarindos airdrome near Mendoza (the same field from which Newbery sailed to his death) on the 9th of that month, at 5.55 a. m. After attaining a height of 12,000 feet, and on reaching the Tupungato at 7 a. m., Parodi observed that Zanni's airplane had disappeared. He returned to the starting point where, without landing, he learned that motor trouble had compelled Zanni to return to Los Tamarindos. Parodi flew again toward the mountains and an hour later was at Tupungato at an elevation of 15,500 feet. He then turned toward Santiago and appeared over that city at an altitude of 9,300 feet. The trip from Mendoza to the Chilean capital was made in three and a half hours, at the rate of about 50 miles an hour. After manœuvering over Santiago, Parodi turned back toward his starting point, crossed the Andes again, and landed at Los Tamarindos at 10.30 a. m. The round trip covered a distance of 275 miles and was made at an average altitude of 18,600 feet. The average velocity on the return trip was 125 miles an hour.

Captain Zanni, using the same machine employed by Captain Parodi, left Los Tamarindos early in the morning of March 16. He crossed the Andes twice, rising to heights of more than 18,000 feet, flew over Santiago and three and a half hours later was back at his home airdrome.

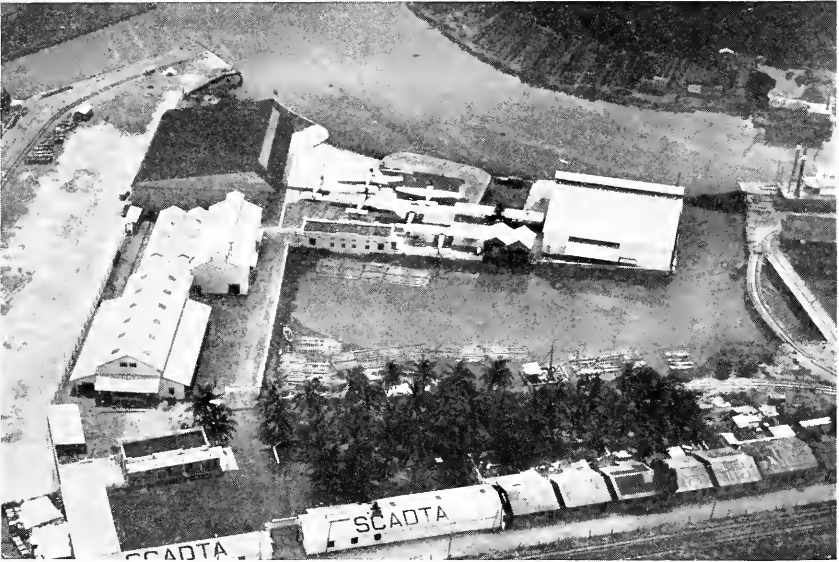
On the same day that Captain Zanni was conquering the Andes and paying a visit to the Chilean capital, Naval Lieutenant Zar completed the first aerial voyage ever made between Buenos Aires and Asuncion, the capital of Paraguay. This trip, which was carried out in three sections, required 12 hours and was made in a hydroplane, following the river courses, a distance of some 780 miles.

Before we leave the aerial trail blazers of the Andes, a tribute should be paid to the Chilean civilian flier Clodomiro Figueroa, who had attempted the crossing as early as 1913. At that time a public subscription was started to buy him a machine sufficiently powerful for his undertaking, but the World War intervened, and it was not until 1921 that he finally obtained the airplane he had so long desired. In September of that year he took off from Santiago and landed safely in Mendoza, carrying, during his flight, the first air mail to go from Chile to Argentina.

The first flight which was ever made between Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires can truly be classed as epoch-making. This journey



had been unsuccessfully attempted by several aviators and had already cost two lives when the Brazilian pilot Edú Chaves began it on the morning of the December 25, 1920. As the distance to be covered was more than 1,840 miles and the airplane's fuel supply sufficient for only five and a half hours, three stops had to be made en route. These were carried out with remarkable precision, and on the afternoon of the 29th Chaves landed at El Palomar airdrome in Buenos Aires. A glance at the map is all one needs to understand the importance of his feat. The regions he traversed, besides being at that time a veritable *terra incognita* for airmen, are made up of mountains, forests, and other natural enemies of atmospheric peace.



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#### THE SCADTA AIRPORT, BARRANQUILLA, COLOMBIA

This is the headquarters at Barranquilla of the first successful commercial air line in the world, which at the present time covers a route of nearly 3,000 miles.

An outstanding example of tenacity in the face of adverse conditions was given by the Argentine civilian flier E. M. Hearne, who in February of 1921 made a trip from Rio de Janeiro to Buenos Aires. On December 19, 1920, Hearne left El Palomar airdrome, near Buenos Aires. He flew for four hours, landed to refuel, and took off again.

Then his troubles began: Forced landings on rough ground, during which the aviator was lucky to escape with only a broken tail skid or a twisted axle. Encounters with dense fogs and storms, while flying over a region of virgin forests, rugged mountains, and rough hills, where a landing was extremely dangerous or entirely out of the question.

Once a storm compelled Hearne to come down on what seemed to be the only clear space in sight—a field occupied by ants whose mounds are as hard as stone and rise to a height of 4 or 5 feet. He landed, more or less successfully, but later on, when attempting to take off, collided with two ant hills and severely damaged his plane.

Two days' hard work on the part of the pilot and his mechanic repaired the machine, but lacking plans and measurements, the accuracy of their work left much to be desired. Nevertheless, Hearne took off, and then the inevitable happened—the fuselage snapped at an altitude of 160 feet, and it was only by a miracle that the two men escaped with their lives.

The journey to Rio was completed by train, and there a new machine was purchased. In this the journey to Buenos Aires was begun.

Three consecutive storms, which required climbing to a height of 18,000 feet, were overcome, but a fourth, during which the pilot reached 19,000 feet only to find that an additional rise of several thousand feet would be required to clear the storm, made a landing imperative, as he carried no oxygen for an even higher climb. The landing, fortunately, was successfully accomplished on a small corn-field surrounded by high hills.

After several adventures, including first-hand acquaintance with a cyclone that played havoc with the surrounding trees, and a meeting with an air-minded cobra, assistance finally came to Hearne, who resumed his travels and reached Buenos Aires by the air route on February 2, 1921.

Chaves had in the meantime completed his flight from Rio to Buenos Aires, so that the honor of being the first to accomplish this trip was denied Hearne. But he undoubtedly ranks as one of the pluckiest and most tenacious men who ever undertook it.

Great interest in aviation has existed in Mexico ever since the days when fliers were wont to say that being the oldest pilot on the force might be preferable to ranking as the best.

In November, 1915, an aviation department was created in the Mexican War Office, and a military airdrome and flying school established. From that time on, Mexico has been training its own pilots.

An aviation factory was soon added to the flying school, and in a short time it progressed from the construction of parts to the design of airplane types especially suited to conditions in the country, and then to the manufacture of these machines, including the engines.

As early as 1918 Mexico was building its own airplanes.

One of the first aeronautical expositions held in Latin America was inaugurated in Mexico City on September 15, 1920. This exhibit was made up mostly of the products of the national aeronautical industry.

Mexican airmen have a lengthy and brilliant record of achievements, not only in flights within their own country but also in voyages to the Caribbean Zone and the United States.

In June, 1928, Captain Carranza made his wonderful but ill-fated flight to Washington, D. C. During August and September of that same year, Colonel Fierro, one of Mexico's veterans of the air, known to his colleagues as "Old Man" Fierro, made a 5,000-mile tour of Cuba, Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Costa Rica, and Panama, beginning and ending in Mexico City.

The Latin American countries have always shown great interest in aerial developments, and clubs and societies for the promotion of aviation have existed in all of them for many years. Besides, all countries have endeavored to establish their own schools and train their own pilots.

In these nations, airplanes have been employed for many purposes. Ranch owners use them as a means of transportation to their properties. Exploration flights have been made over trackless wildernesses and mountains. Pay rolls, medicines, and supplies are carried to oil fields, mines, and settlements in isolated districts.

As has already been said, a Latin American nation was the first in the world to have a successful commercial airway. This line, the "Scadta" (Sociedad Colombo Alemana de Transportes Aéreos), was established in December, 1919, at Barranquilla, Colombia, and has increased its services from 2,688 miles flown in 1920 to more than 800,000 flown in 1930.

To-day, there are more than 20 aviation companies operating in Latin America, with a network of aerial routes that covers more than 10,000 miles.

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## A PAN AMERICAN WINTER INSTITUTE IN FLORIDA

A NEW privilege is offered this year to those who spend the months of January, February, and March in the delightful city of Miami, be they residents, northerners fleeing snow and cold, or regular students in the University of Miami. That institution, which since its inception has been a leader in the field of Latin American studies, will this year hold for the first time a Pan American Winter Institute, directed by Dr. Víctor Andrés Belaúnde, an eminent authority on Pan American affairs.

The curriculum of the Institute is arranged in two periods of five weeks each, beginning on January 9, 1933. The half terms are planned to accommodate those who will be in the city for only part of the winter.

The Institute is an outgrowth of a Pan American forum conducted in the years 1929 and 1932, which aroused so much interest in the student body and the public that the university decided to concentrate its Latin American courses in the winter term, thus affording an opportunity to acquire special preparation in the Pan American field within a short space of time.

Doctor Belaúnde has been head of the Latin American department of the university since its founding in 1926. A member of the Peru-

DR. VÍCTOR ANDRÉS  
BELAÚNDE

Peruvian diplomat, legislator, scholar, and author, who will direct the Pan American Winter Institute at the University of Miami beginning January 9, 1933.



vian parliament and a former professor of the University of San Marcos, he has the unique advantage of being connected with the political and pedagogical life of Peru, besides having had a broad experience in the life of the other Latin American countries which he has visited as lecturer and diplomat. He spends the summer and fall of each year in South America, and the winter and spring in Miami lecturing on Latin American history, culture, diplomatic relations, and comparative institutions and literature.

The Royal Academy of Madrid and the Academy of History of Spain long since invited him to be a corresponding member, an honor coveted by every Latin American intellectual. He has published many books, essays, and pamphlets about international, philosophical, and historical questions; his most important work, the *Political Thought of Bolívar*, will soon appear in English and Spanish.

The courses offered in the first 5-week period of the Winter Institute include: Latin American history, including early civilization, the story of the Conquest, the Spanish settlement and the development of colonial life; Latin American culture, a study of the native background and geographical environment and the development of literature, art, philosophy, religion, and government in colonial times; Latin American diplomatic relations, dealing with Mexico and the Caribbean countries, their relations among themselves and with the United States; and Latin American problems, a seminar on the economic, political, social, and international questions in Mexico and the Caribbean countries. In the second period of the institute these courses will be continued, the first two treating history and culture in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries and the last two the diplomatic relations and problems of the South American republics. A course in comparative political institutions, conducted in seminar form, will also be given for the full term if there is a demand for it.

In addition to the foregoing, courses in the economic geography and economic legislation of Latin America and in the Spanish language and literature are offered during the autumn, winter, and spring terms.

The great interest shown in the round table on Latin American affairs at the Williamstown Institute of Politics, the similar discussions at the Virginia Institute of Public Affairs, and the Seminar Conference on Hispanic American Affairs at George Washington University, all held during the summer, augurs well for a large attendance at the Pan American Winter Institute at the University of Miami. The location of the city, almost next door to Cuba, is conducive to the friendly and intelligent relations which it cultivates with its Latin American neighbors through the University, men's and women's clubs, and many other channels; the courses of the institute are comprehensive, and the leadership is inspiring.

# FINANCIAL MEASURES TAKEN IN COLOMBIA TO MEET THE ECONOMIC CRISIS \*

BY GUILLERMO A. SURO

*Editorial Staff, Bulletin of the Pan American Union*

## II

### THE EXTERNAL DEBT

The external debt of Colombia in 1923 amounted to 21,969,933.55 pesos. That amount represented the indebtedness of the national government, for up to that year the Departments, the municipalities, and the mortgage banks of Colombia had not floated any bond issues abroad. On June 30, 1932, the total foreign debt of the nation, its political subdivisions, and the mortgage banks amounted to 210,226,532.07 pesos, as shown in the following table:

*Public Debt of Colombia as of June 30, 1932* <sup>1</sup>

<i>External Debt</i>		Pesos <sup>2</sup>
Nation.....	-----	79, 777, 632. 07
Departments.....	-----	60, 183, 500. 00
Municipalities.....	-----	22, 216, 900. 00
Mortgage banks.....	-----	48, 048, 500. 00
Total external debt.....	-----	210, 226, 532. 07
<i>Internal Debt</i>		
Nation.....	-----	44, 254, 571. 18
Departments.....	-----	21, 808, 594. 07
Municipalities <sup>3</sup> .....	-----	12, 431, 296. 55
Total internal debt.....	-----	78, 494, 461. 80
Total public debt.....	-----	288, 720, 993. 87

\* In the last issue of the BULLETIN the writer, after a brief discussion of the effects of the depression in Colombia, reviewed the first emergency financial measures taken by President Enrique Olaya Herrera in accordance with the extraordinary powers granted to him by Congress to enact such emergency financial and economic measures as should be necessary to meet the crisis through which the country was passing. On September 24, 1931, the day on which Congress invested the Executive with these extraordinary powers, the gold reserves of the central bank of the nation amounted to 14,000,000 pesos as compared with 65,000,000 pesos in December, 1928. The first measure enacted by the President in the exercise of his extraordinary powers was intended to stop this dangerous depletion of the gold reserve by restricting and controlling foreign exchange transactions. As a supplementary measure the importation of many so-called luxury articles was prohibited and import duties on a long list of products were substantially increased. The various modifications which these two measures have undergone are discussed in detail in the October issue of the BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION; the other outstanding financial measures enacted during this critical period of Colombia's history are reviewed in the following pages.

Errata in October issue: For Decree No. 1643 and Decree No. 1187, on p. 729, read Decree No. 1683 and Decree No. 1871, respectively; for December 31, 1931, on p. 732, read December 11, 1931.

<sup>1</sup> From the "Memoria de Hacienda, 1932," p. 183.

<sup>2</sup> In converting the foreign debt in pounds sterling and dollars into pesos the Ministry of Finance used the rate of 5 pesos to the pound and 1 peso to the dollar.

<sup>3</sup> Does not include the internal debt of the municipalities in the Departments of Cundinamarca and Magdalena, for which no figures were available.

The external debt of the nation represents the outstanding balances of five sterling and two dollar long-term loans and a short-term loan obtained from a group of international bankers. The former, floated before 1921, now aggregate £1,392,660 of an original principal of £2,557,538, and the second, floated in the United States in 1927 and 1928, \$55,863,000 out of a total of \$60,000,000. The short-term loan, payable in two currencies, amounts to \$13,857,081.80 and 75,728,102.45 French francs.

The loans of the Departments and municipalities of Colombia were all floated in the United States, these dollar obligations being about 33½ per cent greater than those of the National Government. The total amounts of bonds issued by the various Departments and municipalities, with the balances outstanding on June 30, 1932, are reported by the Minister of Finance to be as follows:

	Amount issued	Outstand- ing
Departments:		
Antioquia.....	\$32,350,000	\$28,679,000
Caldas.....	10,200,000	8,791,000
Cundinamarca.....	12,000,000	11,537,000
Santander del Sur.....	2,000,000	1,791,000
Tolima.....	2,500,000	2,112,000
Valle del Cauca.....	8,500,000	7,273,500
Total.....	67,550,000	60,183,500
Municipalities:		
Barranquilla.....	2,500,000	1,780,400
Bogota.....	8,700,000	7,006,500
Cali.....	2,885,000	2,408,000
Medellin.....	12,000,000	11,022,000
Total.....	26,085,000	22,216,900

Prior to 1928, the Departments and municipalities of Colombia floated bond issues abroad without supervision by the National Government. On June 5, 1928, however, the Colombian Congress passed a law giving the National Government complete control over the contracting of future loans by these political subdivisions. The law requires presidential approval for all Departmental and municipal foreign loans, and provides that the authorization of the Chief Executive shall only be given when the proceeds of the loan are to be used for public works and the service of the public debt of the Department or municipality, including that of the proposed loan, does not exceed 20 per cent of the ordinary revenues of the borrower.

The debt of the mortgage banks represents the outstanding totals of the bonds issued abroad by the Agricultural Mortgage Bank, the Bank of Colombia, the Mortgage Bank of Bogota, and the Mortgage Bank of Colombia. These bonds, with two exceptions—a £1,200,000 loan to the Agricultural Mortgage Bank and a £2,200,000 loan to the Mortgage Bank of Bogota—are all payable in dollars. The two sterling loans represent the only long-term loans floated in Europe by Colombia since 1920. The bonds of the Agricultural Mortgage Bank, a

Government-controlled institution, are guaranteed as to principal and interest by the Nation, so that the central Government, in addition to its direct external debt, is also contingently liable for the foreign debt of the bank—four dollar issues and one sterling loan, originally amounting to \$16,000,000 and £1,200,000, of which on June 30, 1932, \$13,065,500 and £1,154,700 were outstanding.

For many years Colombia was deprived of the benefits of foreign credit, and the economic development of the country was retarded by lack of capital. The currency and banking reforms of 1923 and the payment of \$25,000,000 to Colombia by the United States Government during the years 1921–1925 in accordance with the treaty of April 6, 1914, marked the beginning of the modernization of the country's economic structure and opened the way for the flow of foreign capital into Colombia from 1925 to 1929. The loans obtained by the Nation, the Departments, and the municipalities during this period were devoted mainly to the construction of railroads, highways, bridges, aqueducts, and other public works. As to the investment of the proceeds of these loans, the Minister of Finance makes the following statement in his last report to Congress:

No doubt mistakes were made in the spending of some of those loans; there was undoubtedly lack of system and technical organization in the investment of the money borrowed. But it can not be denied that through the use of credit, even though such use were immoderate, it was possible to carry out important public works which are now contributing greatly to the economy and culture of the country and those not yet contributing to the desired extent will be of great significance once they are completed through the firm, orderly, and painstaking efforts which the present administration is making in that direction. There were mistakes, no doubt, but there was no negligence. It is very gratifying to the national pride to point out that in the investigations which have been carried out in the United States concerning loans contracted by many nations, not even a shadow has arisen to sully the reputation of a single one of the many Colombian officials who took part in those negotiations. And that is very significant in the realm of credit, of credit in the true sense of the word, based not only on money and the possible capacity to pay, but on the moral structure of a nation and the ethical standards of its leaders.

Despite the constant decrease of the public revenues and the gold reserves, and despite the wishes of a section of Colombian public opinion which favored suspension of the debt service, the administration of President Olaya Herrera, inaugurated in August, 1930, has made every effort to meet the foreign obligations of the Nation and to see that the political subdivisions met theirs. To this end the National Government lent financial aid to several public entities in difficulties about the service of their foreign debts, and when on September 24, 1931, it decreed the control and restriction of foreign exchange transactions it was with the declared intention not only of continuing to pay interest and amortization charges on its own external debt but of allowing the departments and municipalities to do like-



wise. On October 31, 1931, however, faced with the alternatives of restricting transfers for part of the external debt service or of permitting the gold reserves to be depleted to a point where the stability of the currency would be destroyed, the National Government issued a decree (No. 1951) empowering the Exchange Control Board to refuse or defer the applications for the transfer of funds abroad made by Departments, municipalities, and mortgage banks for debt service. Upon refusal by the board to sell foreign exchange, the applicant, according to the decree, was to deposit with the Bank of the Republic in the name of its creditor a sum in Colombian money equivalent, at the rate of exchange of the day, to the foreign currency funds which it desired to transfer abroad for the payment of interest and amortization on its external indebtedness.

Some of the political subdivisions and mortgage banks, when their applications for the transfer of funds abroad were deferred by the Exchange Control Board, complied with the provisions of this decree and deposited Colombian currency to the order of their creditors. In the opinion of the Minister of Finance, however, such a measure could be only provisional in character, since the funds deposited were of no use to the creditors, did not reduce the indebtedness of the debtors, and further contracted the monetary circulation.

The Colombian Government consequently proposed a plan by which these shortcomings would be obviated. The Departments and municipalities were to continue depositing their interest and amortization payments in the manner provided in the above-mentioned decree. The transfer of funds for amortization payments on the Departmental and municipal debts, as well as on that of the Nation, would be temporarily suspended. As to interest payments on the debt of the political subdivisions the National Government proposed to issue its own interest-bearing certificates (*scrip*) in lieu of cash, against maturing Departmental and municipal interest coupons. These certificates would bear interest at the rate of 6 per cent per annum and mature in 18 months, the Government reserving the right to extend their maturity for another 18 months upon payment of accrued interest and a premium of one-half of 1 per cent of their face value. To prevent the contraction of the monetary circulation through the deposit of peso funds the Government, according to the Minister of Finance, intended to make arrangements to lend the Departments and municipalities all or part of the sums which they had deposited at a rate of interest which would compensate the Nation for the interest it had to pay on the certificates.

This plan by which the National Government would substitute its own credit for that of the political subdivisions—the so-called “scrip plan”—was embodied in an agreement signed on December 21, 1931,

between representatives of the central Government and the Departments and the municipalities. On February 5, 1932, President Olaya Herrera issued a decree sanctioning the agreement and providing for a continuation, until further notice, of the suspension of amortization payments on the national foreign debt (temporarily suspended on January 1, 1932), as well as prohibiting the transfer of funds for amortization payments on the Departmental and municipal debts.

When the assemblies of those Departments having foreign debts met in March, and later when their representatives met at Medellin in April, it became evident that some of them were unwilling to continue depositing funds for the service of their external debts. In view of a similar attitude assumed by some municipal Councils, the National Government issued a statement on May 23, 1932, deploring that the attitude assumed by certain Departmental Assemblies and Municipal Councils made necessary the abandonment of the scrip plan. "The Government regrets to be forced to make this decision," the statement said, "but the matter permits no other solution under the Colombian constitution, which guarantees a considerable degree of autonomy to the Departments and municipalities in the management of their own affairs." The Government, therefore, has authorized the Bank of the Republic to return to the political subdivisions the funds which they had deposited to the order of their creditors.

The policy of the present administration of maintaining to the best of its ability the payment of interest on the Nation's direct and guaranteed external debt was reiterated by the following declaration: "To protect the good name and credit of the Republic, the Government considers it to be its duty to continue the policy of maintaining the credit of the nation through the prompt payment of the interest on its public debt and the interest on the debt of the Agricultural Mortgage Bank, guaranteed by the Republic, in so far as the condition of the gold reserves of the country and the revenues of the Treasury permit. . . . The Government trusts that public opinion, at home and abroad, will appreciate the effort and sacrifices that have been made to preserve the external credit of Colombia, which is of vital importance in upholding and improving the commercial relations between our Republic and the other nations of the world." <sup>4</sup>

The payment of the interest on the direct and guaranteed external debt of the National Government represents an annual disbursement of \$6,472,000.

#### THE SALT MINES CONCESSION CONTRACT

Among the national properties of the Colombian Government are the profitable salt mines located in the municipalities of Zipaquirá, Nemocon, Tausa, and Sesquille, which have been worked since

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<sup>4</sup> Memoria de Hacienda, 1932, p. 39

prehistoric times with little appreciable depletion. On December 12, 1931, the Government signed a contract with the Bank of the Republic <sup>5</sup> granting it a concession for the administration and operation of the mines for a 13-year period beginning January 1, 1932.

The contract provides that of the net profits to be derived from the operation of the mines 98 per cent are to go to the Government and 2 per cent to the bank, which agrees to advance to the Government 15,500,000 pesos. The bank is to be reimbursed from the monthly revenues of the mines (estimated at 220,000 pesos) after its share of the profits and 3 per cent interest on the sums advanced have been deducted. During the first 40 months of the contract, however, these amortization payments are to be returned to the Government, so that, although the amount outstanding in advances will never exceed 15,500,000 pesos, the Government in reality will have the use of additional funds estimated at 6,500,000 pesos. In June the bank had advanced to the Government about 14,500,000 pesos.

The contract provides that the sums received by the Government will be used for the following purposes:

1. To cancel the Treasury deficit existing on Dec. 12, 1931, estimated at.....	Pesos 5, 500, 000
2. To cancel the debt of the nation to departments and municipalities for subsidies on highway construction.....	3, 000, 000
3. To settle certain railway construction claims.....	500, 000
4. To complete the Government's contribution to the capital of the Agricultural Credit Bank.....	1, 000, 000
5. To repay the Bank of the Republic for an advance of 1,000,000 pesos to the Agricultural Credit Bank and another of a similar amount to the Colombian Savings Bank.....	2, 000, 000
6. For an emergency fund.....	1, 500, 000
7. For the construction of public works—1932, 3,557,000 pesos; 1933, 2,640,000 pesos; and 1934, 2,303,000 pesos.....	8, 500, 000
	<hr/> 22, 000, 000

Expenditures for public works, by both the National Government and the Departments, are reported to have improved economic conditions by putting money into circulation throughout the Republic and considerably reducing unemployment among the laboring classes. Many of the public works now under way had been abandoned for a number of years, and there was danger that unless soon completed they would not only be unproductive but bring about a total loss of the initial investment.

#### THE AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL CREDIT BANK

The Agricultural and Industrial Credit Bank began to function as the *Caja de Crédito Agrario* on November 20, 1931,<sup>6</sup> with an author-

<sup>5</sup> Approved by the President of the Republic through Decree No. 2214 of Dec. 16, 1932.

<sup>6</sup> The Caja de Credito Agrario was created by Law No. 57 of 1931, and organized by Decree No. 1998, issued by President Olaya Herrera on November 10, 1931.

ized capital of 10,000,000 pesos. Of this sum 2,000,000 pesos were subscribed and paid by the National Government and 400,000 pesos by the National Federation of Coffee Growers, who paid 50,000 pesos when the bank was established, the balance to be paid in installments. The bank had a 50-year charter. Until its operations should assume sufficient importance to warrant its functioning as a separate entity it was to use the organization of the Agricultural Mortgage Bank.

The bank was reorganized by Decree No. 553, issued by President Olaya Herrera on March 23, 1932. It was separated from the Agricultural Mortgage Bank; its capital was increased by 500,000 pesos (taken from the emergency fund provided in the Salt Mines Contract); and an industrial credit section was added to its organization. The name was therefore changed to *Caja de Crédito Agrario e Industrial* and its work divided between two sections, devoted to agricultural and industrial credit, respectively. Further changes in the organization of the bank were made by Decree No. 849 of May 11, 1932.

The bank is administered by a board of five directors and a manager. The manager and four of the directors are appointed by the National Government; the fifth director is chosen by the Board of Directors of the Bank of the Republic. Of the four directors appointed by the Government, one is chosen from three candidates submitted by the National Federation of Coffee Growers, and two from a list of agriculturists and industrialists presented to the Government by the Bank of the Republic.

The agricultural credit section of the bank is empowered to carry on the following operations:

1. To make loans to the farmers and cattle raisers of the country secured by agrarian pledges.
2. To make loans on warehouse receipts.
3. To accept bills of exchange guaranteed by agricultural products in deposit or in transit when the bank is given control over the products through a bill of lading or some other document.
4. To issue bonds guaranteed by those securities received by the bank for its loans which have not been given as security or discounted in another institution and to sell these bonds in the open market or use them as security for loans.
5. To rediscount its paper in the Bank of the Republic or other institutions.
6. To receive deposits for a term of not less than six months.

The loans made by the agricultural credit section are to be for not longer than two years and the maximum amount to be loaned to each person or organization is 15,000 pesos. One-third of the loans must be made with coffee as security. At least 40 per cent of the

loans are to be made to small farmers; that is, individuals who borrow 2,000 pesos or less, or to agricultural credit cooperative societies for distribution among their members in amounts not to exceed 2,000 pesos each.

The industrial credit section is empowered:

1. To grant credits for a term not exceeding five years, only those for less than a year being discountable by the Bank of the Republic.
2. To float bonds of national enterprises.
3. To act as an intermediary in the discounting of drafts for industrial purposes.
4. To discount drafts originating from industrial transactions.
5. To borrow from national or foreign entities.
6. To receive deposits for a term of not more than 180 days.
7. To rediscount its paper in the Bank of the Republic or other banking institutions.

One-fifth of the paid-up capital of the bank will be devoted to industrial credit operations. Twenty per cent of this fifth must be used for loans to small industrial enterprises with a capital of not more than 5,000 pesos, in amounts not to exceed 1,000 pesos each. As security for their loans industrialists may sign a contract of industrial pledge which gives the lender a lien upon certain property while the borrower retains possession and use thereof. The following property may be pledged: Installations and machinery in industrial enterprises; animals and machines, tools, and implements used in industrial labor of any kind, separately or installed; raw materials and manufactured or semimanufactured products; and mining products in the process of elaboration or ready for sale. The pledge creditor is given a preference as against mortgage creditors upon the property subject to agrarian or industrial pledge, the residue of such goods after the pledge credit is satisfied in full being subject to the mortgage debt. Credit will be facilitated to foreign industrialists as well as to Colombians, provided that the former have been established in Colombia for more than five years or have organized a company under Colombian laws with 60 per cent of its declared capital and reserves invested in Colombia.

The Agricultural and Industrial Credit Bank is charged with the formation of regional credit societies throughout the Republic which are to facilitate the work of the bank by serving as intermediaries between it and the farmers and industrialists of the country. The capital of these societies is to be subscribed by the municipalities, the Department, and the farmers and industrialists of the region in which they are established. The societies will make loans on agrarian and industrial pledges which the bank in turn will rediscount up to an amount equal to seven times the paid-up capital of each society.

## THE COFFEE BONUS

Coffee is Colombia's leading source of wealth. Upon the coffee industry depends to a large extent the maintenance of a favorable trade balance, and consequently the conservation of the gold reserves, the stability of the currency, and the soundness of the bank of issue. Low prices have affected the industry, since the fall in price of Colombian coffee has not been accompanied by a corresponding reduction in the cost of production.

Since the control of exchange was established, September 24, 1931, coffee exporters have argued that the system imposed further hardships upon them, because the maintenance of exchange rates at an artificial level forced them to sell their dollar drafts at a lower rate of exchange than if the control were removed and the drafts could be sold in the open market. (As stated in the October issue of the BULLETIN, no merchandise may be exported from Colombia until the exporter has obtained from the Office of Control of Exports and Foreign Exchange a license, granted only when the office is assured that the proceeds in foreign currency derived from the transaction will be placed at the disposal of the Bank of the Republic. The dollar is quoted by the Bank of the Republic at 1.05 pesos, the rate at which exporters are obliged to sell their drafts.) The coffee exporters requested that, if the restrictions upon exchange transactions could not be removed, the rate of exchange be raised, for by lowering the value of the peso in terms of dollars the cost of production would be reduced, at least temporarily, and Colombian producers would be able to compete more advantageously with producers in countries of cheaper currencies.

But neither the Government nor the Bank of the Republic believed that the depreciation of the peso would benefit the country as a whole, "for although it might temporarily benefit exporters, on the other hand monetary stability would be destroyed, the gold standard overthrown, the Bank of the Republic greatly affected, industries depending upon imports harmed, and great injury caused to the numerous debtors with obligations fixed in foreign currencies or gold."

A conflict of interests therefore existed, as between the unquestionably well-founded demands of the coffee exporters and the interests of the country in general, which it was believed were bound to suffer from fluctuations in exchange and the depreciation of the currency. In view of the predominant rôle of the coffee industry in the national economy of Colombia this was a serious question. The Government, with the cooperation of the Bank of the Republic, found what it believes to be a solution to the problem in the formula provided for by Decree No. 422, issued on March 7, 1932.

This decree provides that during one year, beginning March 15, 1932, the Government will pay on coffee exports a bounty amounting

to 10 per cent of the face value of the drafts originating from such exportation. Payment is in the form of national bonds bearing 6 per cent interest, payable semiannually. The interest on the bonds is paid by the Bank of the Republic, which is authorized to take from the dividends on the bank stock held by the Government the amounts necessary for this service. The amortization of the bonds will begin one year from the date of issue, when the Government will receive them at par in payment of 2 per cent of all national taxes. Beginning with the 1933 budget, the Government will make an appropriation for the amortization of these bonds in an amount equivalent to 2 per cent of the estimated revenue to be derived from national taxes, and each month, starting January 1, 1933, will deposit with the Bank of the Republic one-twelfth of this budget appropriation. From these funds the bank will reimburse the Government for those bonds which it has received in payment of taxes. The balance will be used for the amortization, by lot, of the outstanding bonds, drawings to be held every three months.

The coffee exporters will not necessarily have to wait one year to cash their bounties, since the Bank of the Republic has contracted to purchase at par bonds presented at its main offices or agencies up to 15 per cent of its capital and reserves, or about 2,000,000 pesos worth. Once this quota is covered, the bank will not purchase more bonds until, through sales in the open market, it shall have reduced its holdings of these securities. The Government, however, opened another market for the bonds by requiring all savings banks operating in the country to invest in coffee bonds no less than 10 per cent of their capital within six months from March 15, 1932; the banks, insurance companies, and other entities responsible to the public treasury must have substituted within that period coffee bonds for 10 per cent of their real property pledges. Up to June, 1932, 1,050,000 pesos worth of bonds had been issued to coffee exporters as bounties.

#### THE COLOMBIAN CREDIT CORPORATION

Another outstanding financial measure enacted in Colombia to meet the economic crisis was that authorizing the establishment of the Colombian Credit Corporation,<sup>7</sup> to aid national and foreign banks to liquidate their frozen assets. The creation of this institution was necessary because of the legal restrictions which prevented or made it difficult for the banks to undertake many of the transactions necessary to effect a settlement with their debtors. The charter of the corporation is for 10 years, and its stockholders are the banks that wish to avail themselves of its services. The following banks subscribed to the stock when the corporation was established on February 24, 1932:

<sup>7</sup> Decree No. 234 of Feb. 11, 1932.

The Mortgage Bank of Colombia, the Bank of Colombia, the Bank of Bogota, the French and Italian Bank of South America, the Bank of London and South America, and the German Bank of Antioquia.

The corporation is empowered to carry on loan and discount operations, including mortgage loans, and in general to transact all business which banks and commercial corporations are authorized to conduct. It may not, however, receive deposits.

The value of the assets transferred to the corporation for liquidation is fixed by agreement between the interested bank and the corporation, but may not exceed 80 per cent of the face value of such paper. The corporation is authorized to issue bonds up to the value of the assets which it may receive from banks, provided the paid-up capital of the corporation is never less than 5 per cent of the nominal value of its bonds in circulation. With these bonds the corporation pays for the assets which it takes over from the banks. Any profit from the liquidation of each asset above the valuation placed on it by the corporation when taking it over is distributed equally between the corporation and the interested bank; any loss resulting from the liquidation is collectible from the bank.

The banks may use the corporation's bonds as collateral for loans from the Bank of the Republic, which is authorized to receive them as security up to 85 per cent of their face value. During the first five years of the 10-year life of the corporation the total loans made by the Bank of the Republic on such security may attain 25 per cent of its paid-in capital and reserves; during the second 5-year period they may not exceed 15 per cent. The corporation not only benefits the banks but also the debtors whose obligations are transferred to the corporation, since this new organization is able to offer them facilities for settlement or liquidation which the banks could not grant them because of the restrictions under which they operate.

To help debtors settle their obligations with the banks the Government has loaned the corporation 400,000 pesos from the emergency fund established by the Salt Mines Concession Contract which the corporation has been using principally to facilitate the liquidation of long-term mortgage obligations through loans to small debtors in sums which do not exceed 3,000 pesos in each instance.<sup>8</sup> In addition to this sum the Government has authorized the Bank of the Republic to loan the corporation sums up to 1,000,000 pesos guaranteed with the securities obtained by the corporation in the liquidation of assets taken over from banks,<sup>9</sup> and to discount the securities which the corporation receives as collateral for any loans which it might make up to 500,000 pesos, provided these securities meet the banks' requirements for discountable paper.<sup>10</sup>

<sup>8</sup> Art. 6, Decree No. 420, Mar. 7, 1932.

<sup>9</sup> Decree No. 735, Apr. 27, 1932.

<sup>10</sup> Art. 7, Decree No. 420, Mar. 7, 1932.



## PAYMENT FACILITIES FOR DEBTORS

The debt situation has assumed a serious character in Colombia, particularly with respect to obligations secured by mortgages on real property. During the boom years the increase in real-estate transactions and in the issue of mortgage bonds based on real-estate loans by commercial and mortgage banks caused an abnormal increase in the value of real property which has been wiped out by the depression. Consequently numerous debtors whose mortgages are based on the higher valuations of former years find themselves unable to meet the periodical payments of interest and amortization due on their obligations, placing the banks who loaned them money in a difficult position since they depend upon these payments to attend to the service of their mortgage bonds.

The debt question has caused considerable agitation and the Government has been persistently urged to do something about it. The attitude of the Government in this matter was stated by the Minister of Finance, Señor Esteban Jaramillo, in giving the reasons for the issuance of the first of a number of decrees enacted in Colombia to facilitate the settlement of debts. He said:

The Government has studied every aspect of the problem, and although it believes that during a period of complete normality its intervention in a matter that comes within the purview of private law would not be justified, it also feels that at times of such grave emergency as the present its failure so to intervene might seriously injure not only the large number of persons indebted to banking institutions but also the soundness and solvency of the banks themselves.

Moved by this consideration, President Olaya Herrera issued Decree No. 280 of February 16, 1932, the fundamental idea of which, said the Minister of Finance, "has been to effect, in so far as possible, an equitable distribution of sacrifices between creditors and debtors to the end that the latter may be able to attend to the service of their debts, and the former may not be deprived of resources with which to meet in turn the obligations which they have assumed."

By virtue of this decree the interest rate on mortgages held by the banks was limited by a tax equal to the sum by which the interest charged exceeds 9 per cent per annum and the interest on internal mortgage bonds by a tax equal to the sum whereby the interest thereon exceeds 7 per cent, such bonds to be free of income tax. When the interest rates do not exceed those indicated no tax will be collected, but when creditors demand interest in excess of those rates the excess thereof (that is, the amount of the tax) will be retained by the debtor. Therefore, what the decree really does is to reduce from 8 to 7 per cent the interest which the banks pay the bondholders on their internal mortgage bonds so that the banks in turn may reduce to 9 per cent the interest which they charge debtors on loans made on

mortgage security. (The average rate charged by banks on mortgages was 11 per cent.)

The decree also provides that the rate of interest charged on loans made between private individuals is subject to a tax equivalent to the amount in which such interest exceeds 10 per cent per annum on loans guaranteed by collateral and to a tax equivalent to the amount in which the interest exceeds 12 per cent on loans made without collateral. This provision was later amplified to include debts between private individuals arising out of contracts other than loan contracts.<sup>11</sup>

If the interest rate agreed upon for delayed payments exceeds the regular interest by more than 2 per cent it will be taxed in an amount equal to the excess.

The term of maturity of the paper which the Bank of the Republic can rediscount to its member banks is extended to six months, provided the paper is otherwise discountable, so that the banks in turn may grant their debtors 6-month extensions in the payment of their obligations.

During the time the decree is in force (three years from date of issue, subject to renewal for another period of two years) amortization of the internal bonds issued by mortgage banks will be suspended and bonds maturing during that period will be exchanged for others to mature in five years from the date of issue. The mortgage banks on their part will double the term of the unpaid installments on mortgage loans which they have made on a gradual amortization basis, provided the new term does not exceed 20 years.

The decree also provides that the Government is to lend the Mortgage Bank of Bogota and the Mortgage Bank of Colombia 300,000 pesos apiece from the emergency fund provided in the Salt Mines Concession Contract for five years without interest, the banks to reimburse the Government in annual payments during the four years following the expiration of this term.

In their turn, the mortgage banks are to accept their own internal and external bonds from their various debtors in payment of obligations, as follows: In not less than 50 per cent of the installments due up to February 16, 1932, and those maturing thereafter, and in full payment of extra, total, or partial payments on the principal. Internal mortgage bonds are accepted at par for their nominal value; external mortgage bonds at 20 per cent discount from their face value.

The banks were to charge no interest to delinquent debtors who covered their overdue installments 120 days from the date of issue of the decree and to allow clients who requested it and could furnish sufficient guaranty to capitalize their past-due installments.

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<sup>11</sup> Art. 1, Decree No. 420 of Mar. 7, 1932.

Another relief measure provided in Decree No. 280 is that by which judicial auction sales may be suspended at the request of the debtor. The decree provides that in all "executory suits" (summary suits to collect debts due) and suits to sell goods mortgaged or pledged, pending on February 16, 1932, or which might be initiated up to August 1, 1932, the proceeding may be suspended at the debtor's request at the time the date for the auction sale is set or before such sale. This suspension is to last until the end of the current year.

The decree provided that if the debtor made use of this prerogative the attached goods would be put under the control of a third party designated by the debtor, if the creditor so requested. In such a case the net proceeds derived from the administration of the goods were to be delivered to the creditor. When the property attached is a factory or an industrial or agricultural establishment, the debtor may request the court to permit him to continue administering the property, according to Decree No. 420 of March 7, 1932.

Decree No. 420 also authorizes commercial banks to convert commercial obligations due them into long-term mortgage obligations, with or without gradual amortization. For such transactions commercial banks will enjoy the privileges of mortgage banks. On those debts which they do not transfer to the Colombian Credit Corporation they are allowed to grant debtors extensions for a period longer than six months, provided the debtor makes fixed periodical payments on the principal. The Bank of the Republic is authorized to make loans to commercial banks on mortgage securities maturing within one year up to an amount equal to 50 per cent of the value of the Bank of the Republic stock held by the respective commercial bank.

Decrees Nos. 280 and 420 offer facilities mainly to mortgage debtors; to facilitate the settlement of debts owed to commercial banks President Olaya Herrera issued Decree No. 711 of April 22, 1932, later amended by Decree No. 945 of May 31, 1932.

By virtue of Decree No. 711 the Superintendent of Banks was authorized to enter into a contract with the commercial banks operating in the country, as well as the commercial department of the Mortgage Bank of Colombia, by which the banks agreed to receive the internal and external bonds of the Colombian Government in partial or full payment of debts owed them, provided that in each payment the banks received an equal amount in cash to that received in bonds. This provision was at first applied to obligations and renewal of obligations contracted prior to April 22, 1932, and later to obligations contracted prior to January 1, 1932.

The bonds received by the banks may be used as collateral for loans from the Bank of the Republic, which is authorized to make

these loans up to an amount equal to the value of the bonds at par provided the loans do not exceed 75 per cent of the capital and reserves of the borrowing bank.

The external bonds will be received by the banks at a 20 per cent discount from their face value. Payment of debts owed to commercial banks in external bonds will only be authorized while the gold reserves of the Bank of the Republic remain above 14,000,000 pesos. The amount of external bonds which banks may receive in payment of debts owed them during the three years the decree will be in force has been limited to 9,000,000 pesos.

The bonds received by the banks, both internal and external, will be converted into new 7 per cent internal bonds, the interest and principal of which will be paid in gold. These bonds will be exempt from all taxes except the income tax. Individuals or corporations who possess internal bonds and do not exchange them for the new bonds will have the difference between the interest (8 or 10 per cent) on the bonds which they hold and the interest of the new bonds (7 per cent) deducted when the interest coupon is paid.

For the purchase of external mortgage bonds for the settlement of debts to mortgage banks in accordance with Decree No. 280 and for the purchase of external national bonds for the settlement of debts to commercial banks in accordance with Decree No. 711 the Office of Control of Foreign Exchange and Exports is authorized to issue licenses for the transfer of funds for the purchase of these bonds abroad up to the amount of 300,000 pesos a month.

#### THE CENTRAL MORTGAGE BANK

Decree No. 711 also provided for the creation of a Central Mortgage Bank to make loans on mortgage security for the settlement of debts owed to commercial and mortgage banks. A committee of three members, representing the Government, the Bank of the Republic, and the other banks who wished to become members, was appointed to organize the bank in accordance with the stipulations of the aforementioned decree, as amended by Decree No. 945, already referred to. The contract between the committee and the Government providing for the organization and establishment of the bank was approved by President Olaya Herrera on June 11, 1932. It began to function on July 1, its charter being for 40 years.

The bank has an authorized capital of 20,000,000 pesos divided into 2,000,000 shares valued at 10 pesos each. The shares are divided into four series, A, B, C, and D, to be subscribed by the Bank of the Republic, Colombian commercial banks, branches of foreign banks, and other entities and individuals, respectively. The Bank of the Republic shares (Series A) will amount to 10,000,000 pesos; series B and C shares to at least 10 per cent of the paid-up capital and reserves of the banks who wish to become members. In cases of banks which

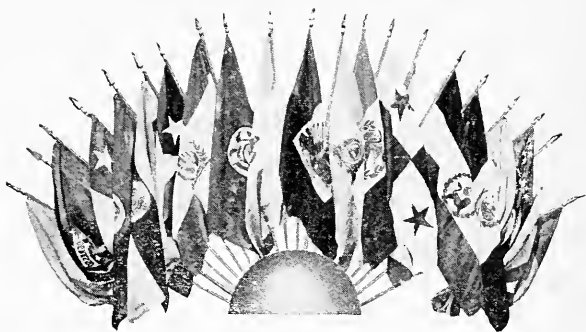
have a mortgage as well as a commercial department the 10 per cent applies to the capital and reserves of the commercial section.

On June 6, 1932, when the application for establishment of the bank was submitted to the Banking Superintendent for approval, the subscribed capital of the bank amounted to 11,180,110 pesos, as follows: Bank of the Republic, 10,000,000 pesos; Bank of Bogota, 640,000 pesos; Bank of Colombia, 405,900 pesos; Mortgage Bank of Colombia, 89,210 pesos; and Commercial Bank of Barranquilla, 45,000 pesos. The bank was to begin operations when 20 per cent of the subscribed capital was paid in, the remaining payments for stock to be made in regular installments.

The administration of the bank is in charge of a board of directors of five members, of whom one is appointed by the President of the Republic and two by the board of directors of the Bank of the Republic; two are elected by the Colombian commercial banks affiliated with the institution. Should one or more foreign banks become members of the Central Mortgage Bank the board of directors will be increased by two members, one to be elected by the foreign banks, the other appointed by the Bank of the Republic. Provision is also made for the election of another member of the board by the stockholders of Series D shares when 300,000 pesos of this stock has been subscribed.

The Central Mortgage Bank is authorized to do all business which the banking laws permit mortgage banks to conduct with the limitations imposed by Decrees Nos. 711 and 945. Loans by the bank are limited for three years to those which are to be devoted to the settlement of commercial or mortgage debts owed to commercial banks members of the institution or to mortgage banks, provided these debts were contracted prior to January 1, 1932. Mortgage loans for other purposes than the settlement of debts to banks can only be made during this period when the borrower is willing to accept the loan in Central Mortgage Bank bonds at par. The bank is authorized to issue bonds up to an amount equal to the mortgage loans it has made. It will cooperate with the Colombian Credit Corporation by making mortgage loans on the real estate acquired by the corporation in its work of liquidating frozen assets.

The depression has curtailed Colombia's foreign trade, depleted her gold reserves, contracted the monetary circulation, restricted credit, and lowered values. The measures outlined above constitute the country's reaction to these conditions. A stable government, which has been characterized by its efforts to maintain the payment of its international obligations, to balance the budget, preserve the stability of the currency, and safeguard the banking structure of the country has no doubt been Colombia's principal asset in the fight which the country is waging to solve her economic problems.



## COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY NOTES

*National Library of Mexico.*—The services which the National Library of Mexico offers to its readers, recently supplemented by the inauguration of a periodical room, have been further improved by the addition of a catalogue of portraits. The catalogue contains about 8,000 index cards of portraits to be found in periodicals and books in the library. On each card may be found a brief biographical sketch of the subject and description of the pose and background. It should prove specially useful to historians, students, and journalists.

*The National Library of Colombia.*—According to the latest annual report of the Director of the National Library at Bogota the broadcasting of radio programs by station HJN of that city and the work of the International Bureau of Exchanges were among the outstanding activities of the library during the fiscal year 1931-32. The radio programs, which began March 5, 1932, included concerts and discussions of current events and economic topics, as well as reports on modern literature. As a result of these programs, readers' attendance at the library increased by 23½ per cent. New books were exchanged with libraries within the Republic and abroad. The report states that the library now possesses 85,000 volumes, of which 26,958 have been catalogued. During the year 39,372 readers used the main reading room and 8,186 the children's library. The work of reorganizing the library is progressing under the direction of Dr. Daniel Samper Ortega.

*Accessions.*—Among the many books received during the past month the *Diccionario de Americanismos* by Augusto Malaret deserves special mention. This volume, a revised second edition, is a valuable addition to Spanish lexicons. Among other accessions were:

*Ensayo literarios e históricos*, por Carlos Martínez Silva. Bucaramanga, Imprenta del departamento, 1932. 196 p. 8°. (Biblioteca Santander, vol. 3.)

*Sobre economía social americana*, por Enrique Jiménez. Santo Domingo, Tip. de "La Nación, C. por A." 1932. 120 p. 12°.

*Las escuelas del Uruguay*, por Victor Cabera Lozada. [La Paz.] Editorial López, 1931. 98 p. 12°.

*Encuesta sobre la biblioteca escolar infantil verificada por iniciativa y bajo la dirección de Antonio Morello*. La Plata, Revista de Instrucción Primaria, 1932. 80 p. 8°.

*O cacao*, por Gregorio Bondar. Bahia, Imprensa official do estado, 1925-1929. 2 vols. illus. 8°. pt. 1, A cultura e o preparo do cacao; pt. 2, Molestias e inimigos do cacaseiro no estado da Bahia, Brasil. The Library has vol. 1 of the 2d edition, 1929, and vol. 2 of the 1st edition, 1925.

*Código civil para el Estado de Veracruz-Llave*. Edición oficial. Jalapa-Enríquez, Talleres Linotipográficos del gobierno del estado, 1932. 655 p. 8°.

*Babel y el castellano*, por Arturo Capdevila. Buenos Aires, Compañía Ibero-Americana de Publicaciones, S. A., [n. d.]. 244 p. 12°.

*Los buscadores de oro*. (Cuentos, narraciones, puntos de vista) por Juan Carlos Dávalos. Buenos Aires, Librería y editorial "La Facultad" [n. d.]. 277 p. 12°.

*Los gauchos*, por Juan Carlos Dávalos. Buenos Aires, Librería y editorial "La Facultad," 1928. 229 p. illus. 8°.

*Romancero de las calles de Lima*, por Arturo Montoya. Lima, Imprenta A. J. Rivas Berrio, 1932. 8°. 2 vols.

*Rodó en la cátedra*, por Juan Carlos Sabat Pebet. Montevideo, Publicación de la Asociación "José E. Rodó," 1931. 102 p. 12°.

*Exploraciones arqueológicas en el Río Uruguay medio*, por Antonio Serrano. Paraná, Talleres gráficos casa Predassi, 1932. 89 p. illus. 8°.

*Juan Manuel Blanes, su vida y sus cuadros*, por José M. Fernández Saldaña, Montevideo, Impresora Uruguaya. S. A., 1931. 257 p. illus. col. plates. 8°.

*Biografía del General Francisco Morazán*. Segunda edición, por E. Martínez López. Tegucigalpa, Tipografía Nacional, 1931. 523 p. illus. 8°.

*Por tierras calientes*; impresiones, anécdotas e iniciativas referentes al Beni y Noroeste. La Paz, Imp. "Atenea" [n. d.]. 190 p. 12°.

*Manual de tráfico; guía de información, comercial, industrial, y profesional de La Paz*. Imp. "Atenea," 1930. [143] p., incl. illus. Fold. maps. 12°.

*Documentos del tercer congreso postal Panamericano, Madrid, 1931*. Oficina Internacional de la Unión Postal de las Americas y España, Montevideo. Montevideo, Imp. E. Lagomarsino e hijo, [1931] 376 p. 4°.

*Historia do Brasil*, por H. Handelman. Tradução brasileira do Instituto Historico e Geographico Brasileiro. Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa Nacional, 1931. 1006 p. 8°.

*Diccionario de Americanismos*. 2° edición extensamente corregida, por Augusto Malaret. San Juan, Imprenta "Venezuela," 1931. 520 p. 4°.

The library has received for the first time during the past month the following periodicals:

*Social*, Lima, Perú. (Aparece los días 5 y 20 de cada mes.) Año 2, número 34, 27 de julio de 1932. 60 p. illus. 8 x 11 inches.

*Minerva*. (Órgano de publicidad de la Sociedad de Maestros "Minerva.") Mazatenango, Guatemala. (Revista mensual.) Año 1, núm. 1, septiembre de 1932. 12 p. 8¾ x 10¾ inches.

*Revista Crítica de Jurisprudencia*. Buenos Aires, Calle San Martín 235, República Argentina. (Publicación quincenal.) Año 1, núm. 1, 15 de julio de 1932. 28 p. 8½ x 11¼ inches.

*Revista de Economía y Finanzas*. La Paz, Bolivia. (Revista mensual.) Año 2, núm. 11, Junio de 1932. 36 p. 7½ x 10½ inches.

*Boletín del Rotary Club de Tucumán.* Tucumán, República Argentina. Calle Junín 919. Año 1, núm. 7, 31 de julio de 1932.  $8\frac{3}{4} \times 12\frac{1}{2}$  inches.

*Actualidades.* (Revista semanal ilustrada.) Lima, Perú. Calle de la Unión (Baquijano) No. 740 altos. Año 1, núm. 1, 9 de julio de 1932. 32 p. illus.  $7 \times 10$  inches.

*Boletín de la Auditora General de la República de El Salvador.* San Salvador, República de El Salvador. Volúmen 3, número 7, junio de 1932. 328 p.  $7 \times 9\frac{1}{2}$  inches.

*Revista Diplomática Consular.* Caracas, Venezuela. Principal a Conde No. 16. (Mensual.) Año 1, número 1, 6 de agosto de 1932.  $8\frac{1}{4} \times 11\frac{1}{4}$  inches. illus.

*Crónica Administrativa.* (Informaciones generales de la administración nacional.) Buenos Aires, República Argentina. Calle Salguero 1207. (Revista mensual.) Año 1, No. 2, julio de 1932. 34 p. illus.  $10\frac{1}{4} \times 14$  inches.

*Revista de Educación.* (Ministerio de educación pública de Guatemala.) (Publicación bimestral de artes, ciencias, industrias, variedades y de los intereses generales del magisterio.) Guatemala, Guatemala. Año 2, No. 6, 15 de septiembre de 1932. 49 p. illus.  $6 \times 9\frac{3}{4}$  inches.

*Oriente.* (Revista general de derecho.) Santiago de Cuba. (Publicación mensual.) Corona, alta 18. Año 1, No. 3, septiembre de 1932. 404 p. illus.  $6 \times 9\frac{1}{4}$  inches.





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# BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



NATIONAL PALACE, SAN SALVADOR

DECEMBER

1932

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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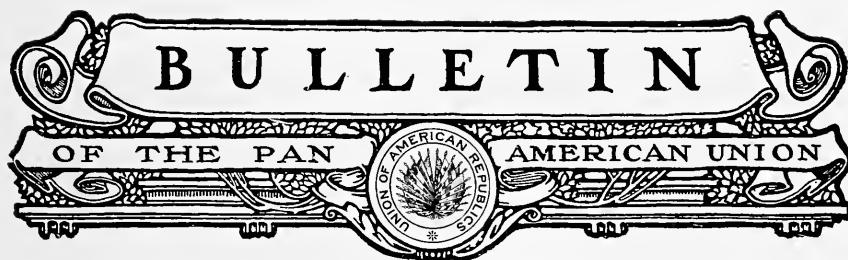
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GUIDE in your library)*



HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL ABELARDO L. RODRÍGUEZ, PRESIDENT OF MEXICO

Elected by the Mexican Congress September 4, 1932, to fill the unexpired term of President Ortiz Rubio ending November 30, 1934.



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VOL. LXVI

DECEMBER, 1932

No. 12

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## GENERAL ABELARDO L. RODRÍGUEZ, PRESIDENT OF MEXICO

GENERAL Abelardo L. Rodríguez, President of Mexico, is one of the youngest men to have held that important office. He was born on May 12, 1889, in San Jose de Guaymas, Sonora, his parents being Nicolás Rodríguez and Petra Luján de Rodríguez. Since his father was one of the founders of the city of Nogales, in the same state, it was there that the young Rodríguez attended school and engaged in business until he entered the Revolutionary Army in 1913. His rise to his present rank of General of Division—the highest in the army—was the due recognition, step by step, of his military ability and valor in the field. He fought in the bravest regiments of Sonora and was wounded at the battle of La Trinidad. As commanding officer of an expedition to Lower California he won further military repute. As a result, he was holding the portfolio of Secretary of War and Marine when he was elected President by Congress on September 4, 1932, to fill out the unexpired term, ending November 30, 1934, of President Pascual Ortiz Rubio, resigned.

From 1924 to 1929 General Rodríguez was Governor of Northern Lower California. His administration of this office brought him well-deserved praise from Mexicans and foreigners alike, because of his successful efforts to promote industry and agriculture, construct highways, sanitize and improve towns, build and maintain schools, and rehabilitate public finances—all measures which converted that Territory into one of the most flourishing sections of the country.

General Rodríguez entered the executive branch of the Federal Government in 1931 as Assistant Secretary of War and Marine, but not long after became Secretary of Industry, Commerce, and Labor. In this capacity he worked energetically for industrial development in harmony with the rights of both labor and capital. From this cabinet post he passed to that of War and Marine, and thence, as has been said, to the Presidency.

He has outlined the main objectives of his program as the creation and maintenance of a stable government and the union of all Mexicans in productive labor for the economic reconstruction of their country.



## LITTLE MEXICO NOTE

By THEA GOLDSCHMIDT

BETWEEN the houses of José García and Pedro Mendoza in San Antonio, Tex., lies a strip of ground, 12 feet long and 24 feet wide, which belongs to José. It is a barren bit of ground, beaten hard by many generations of footsteps and many footsteps to the generation. To-night it is a festive little spot. On either side is a row of benches, supplemented here and there by kitchen chairs. Already the rows are filled with placid Mexican women, holding their babies on their ample laps and gazing about them with an incurious expression. The men stand about in clusters of twos and threes, their teeth flashing in the light of the smoky kerosene lamps in keen appreciation of some witticism. Children line the fences and roost upon the chicken coops and woodpiles, and from the darkened windows of José's house his numerous progeny peer into the lighted yard. José and his wife, however, are busily arranging last-minute details and exchanging greetings with their friends and neighbors. *Los Pastores*, that hybrid Spanish-Indian, medieval, and contemporary mixture of a passion play, is about to commence.

No definite time, however, can be set for its beginning, for who can say but that Juan, who is to play the part of the Archangel Gabriel, had a bit too much *tequila* to-night (it being Christmas, after all), or that Antonio, the director, prompter, and hermit, is detained at his fruit stand? Neither can one predict how long this show will last. Perhaps the actors are tired and decide to stop at 10.30, or they may feel fresh and continue until 3. The play itself is rather elastic in this respect; the songs may be repeated again and again, or some of the verses may be cut to shorten them. Ritual can be sacrificed to suit the temperaments of the players.

*Los Pastores* is drama in its crudest form. There are no curtains and no "props," and the setting is almost Elizabethan in its simplicity. Perhaps its first setting, when it was introduced to the Mexicans by the Spanish monks, was in the church, but now it has migrated to the privacy of just such a yard as that which belongs to José. Throughout the Christmas season, from Christmas until Candlemas (February 2), the little band of players goes about to various homes, presenting *Los Pastores*. There is a curious uniformity in the back yards in "Mexican town." Ordinarily they are merely dull rectangles, useful for hanging out clothes, but at Christmas time they serve adequately for a runway, up and down which the actors may tramp, singing out

their lines in fluent Spanish, with the rare lapses in memory quickly checked by their alert prompter.

The strip of ground is bright to-night. At one end is an altar, a rude wooden structure of graduated steps, covered with black sateen. It has a high back wall and a canopy, both of which are draped in black. This is the background for the *nacimiento*, or manger scene. Upon the various steps José and his wife have placed those objects they hold most dear and consider most beautiful: Christmas cards, tinsel, a pincushion in a golden slipper, a small statue of Buddha, and statues of the patron saints of every member of the family. The Star of Bethlehem twinkles at the top, and from the canopy hang streamers of green crêpe paper and dangling paper roses—an anomaly perhaps, but what of it? In the very center of the lowest step, below an image of the Virgin Mary, lies the Child Jesus (a life-sized baby doll) on a platter of gaudy Christmas candies. This modern version of the scene of the nativity is supplemented by small plaster figures of cows, sheep, and donkeys, of sizes entirely disproportionate to the human figures. It is considered a handsome *nacimiento*, and murmurs of "*Qué bonito!*" come to José's ears. Opposite the *nacimiento*, at the other end of the rectangle, is a tent with lurid scenes painted upon it, scenes showing volcanoes spouting fire and brimstone and devils waving 3-pronged pitchforks. Later the emergence of devils from the canvas flap will substantiate the belief that this is a veritable and orthodox hell. Before it, partly for warmth and partly to carry further the realism, is a small and struggling bonfire, which is replenished from time to time by one of the spectators, all of whom seem to enter into the spirit of the play with a great deal of informality.

We, as visitors, are treated with friendliness and are allowed to pre-empt two spaces on the already crowded bench. After that we are forgotten. It is a clear, cold night. The ground is chilled, and the wind whips around the corner of the house and into the napes of our necks. The proximity of a plump, brown señora is a comfort in such weather, although her baby occasionally sprawls into my lap and is charmingly retrieved by her mother with smiles and apologies. I look across at the row of diverse faces—old and wrinkled women with toothless grins, smooth-skinned young girls, mantilla-covered heads, and the flashing eyes and painted cheeks of an Americanized flapper. And there are fat old men, slim dashing young ones, men with grizzled beards, and others with neat mustaches. Complexions shade from cream to bronze. Everywhere, without exception, there is color—a gay dress, a bandana handkerchief wound about a young man's throat, a scarf, jagged with brilliance.

Suddenly, without any preliminaries, for there is no curtain to be raised and there are no lights to be lowered, a little girl in a stiff white



dress, white slippers, and white cotton stockings begins to walk up and down the runway between the *nacimiento* and the tent which is Hell. The crêpe paper wings on her shoulders flap dismally as she recites the long verse in her soft monotone and punctuates it with awkward gestures. When she is through she steps aside, and, just as casually, there appears a group of shepherds, resplendent in pink coats with tinsel or silver braid trimmings, a beaded satchel slung across the shoulder by a broad red ribbon; each one is carrying a richly ornamented staff, which jangles with numerous tiny bells. Most of these are young men; they shuffle to their places with painful self-consciousness and grin feebly when their friends wink or smile at them. As they arrange themselves, they drone out an endless song, which they will repeat again and again throughout the evening. The words may change, but the tune is always the same. Behind them prances the hermit, the comic relief, who wears a long gray robe festooned with moss, carries a rosary made of spools, and has the mask of an old man. This is really Antonio, and, as everyone has penetrated his disguise, he is greeted with cheers and jokes, for he is very popular. He acknowledges these by growling and shaking his staff.

Last of all come the devils, seven of them, each more imposing than the last. All but Lucifer are dressed in black, with sequins, beads, and mirrors sewed upon their mantles. These catch the light and send back a thousand lights in return. Lucifer wears a suit and cloak of brilliant red, a convincing forked tail appearing from the latter. These devils clank and flash their swords and speak in hollow muffled tones from behind their masks, which represent the grotesque heads of wolves and bears, as well as of imaginary monsters. Each devil dashes out with a Christmas sparkler flaming from his cap, a modern accessory to an ancient custom. Their entry is so precipitate that the women gasp and shrink back, and somewhere along the line a baby begins to cry.

*Los Pastores* is an interminable performance. The endurance of the audience must be as great as that of the actor. At last there is a lapse, the spectator heaves a sigh of relief, thinks the performance is ended, and then realizes that this is just a pause for breath. There are half a dozen battles between Good and Evil, each struggling for the soul of the Christ Child who was born that day. These are accompanied by the clanking of tin swords and a breathless harangue in Spanish verse. The shepherds sing endless songs, jingling at the same time the bells that hang from their overdecorated crooks. One of them, Bartolo, refuses to go farther on the pilgrimage to worship the Child. He says that he is tired, that he wants to go to sleep, and finally he spreads his blanket on the ground and lies down like a

willful child. His friends cajole, threaten, bribe. One of them, Tulio, pleads with him: "Bartolo, come look on Him with eyes of love," and Bartolo answers testily, "If thou'rt so anxious, bring Him here." At last he is won around, however, and resumes the journey, singing:

To Bethlehem I take the road  
With joy my Lord to know;  
I offer to the Infant God  
This lambkin white as snow.

At length the shepherds reach the *nacimiento*, and after another burst of song each goes separately to worship at the shrine and to kiss the foot of the baby doll that represents the Christ Child. The devils are seen no more; they have been vanquished.

But an Indian bursts from the tent in the full regalia of warfare. The fringes of his buckskin jacket catch the rhythm of his dance and sway with him to a tune sawed from an old violin. Twice he makes a dash for the altar and is driven back by the shepherds. The third time he reaches it, kneels, and pays homage at the shrine. The devils, the stubborn Bartolo, and the savage Indian have all been tamed by the chubby Prince of Peace.

The crowd breaks up, not, however, to go home. Slowly each spectator, the peon direct from Mexico and his almost American cousin, goes to the altar to pay his respects to the Child. The night is growing colder, but there is no hurry. Every face shows that this is a sacred pilgrimage, although it takes but 24 paces. We linger to see José and his wife, their faces wreathed in smiles, distribute candy to the troupe. Then, in groups of twos and threes, the crowd filters away and we with it.

There is no exchange of money here, no bartering, no collection. Every Christmas, during the entire season, this band of Mexican performers goes about to present *Los Pastores*. Juan makes a *nacimiento*, an altar depicting the manger scene, and invites the players to come. It is an honor for them to be invited and he is honored that they have accepted. Each man provides his own costume, and the shepherds even seem to vie with one another to see who can produce the finest staff. One has a betinseled watermelon of papier-mâché topping his staff, and when he strikes it on the ground, the bells jingle and the watermelon falls partly open, disclosing the red heart. Another, of a more mechanical turn of mind, has fastened a dove on his crook. He can manipulate a string and the dove flaps its wings and seems to be on the point of flying away. The shepherds work on these crooks for months, in order to make them as magnificent as possible.

Year after year *Los Pastores* is presented in out of the way corners of San Antonio. Only the initiated can find it, but the process, once

learned, is simple. You go to the fruit stand of Antonio, who directs the players. He will be able to tell you where it will be given, or he can send you to a third party who is sure to know. And, after winding through the maze of streets in Little Mexico, you stumble upon the lighted yard and the crowd, and there is *Los Pastores*. Antonio has played the part of the hermit for 11 years, and he hopes that when he is too old to continue his son will be able to take the part. Antonio possesses to my knowledge the only copy of *Los Pastores* in San Antonio. It is written down in a dirty, worn ledger which he keeps on a shelf in his fruit stand. He teaches the other players their lines, and this is the way that it has been handed down for generations. It promises to continue, for the Mexicans never tire of seeing it again and again. There is some danger from kindly old ladies in conservation societies, who threaten to conserve something that has already been solidly entrenched in the hearts of the people. So far it has not been commercialized. It is a labor of love, one of the few left in the world.



# SILVER IN THE WEST AND THE EAST<sup>1</sup>

By HERBERT M. BRATTER

*Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce*

THE utilization of silver by mankind antedates civilization. The white metal has played a unique rôle in the lives of almost every people from the most primitive to the most cultured. Like the veins which characterize the metal as it is found in ore, the history of silver is inextricably intertwined with the history of great nations, assuming now greater and now lesser importance, but never ceasing to be present.

It is no exaggeration to state that silver had a part of utmost significance in the exploration and settlement of Latin America, as, also, in the prosperity of the Spanish Empire. The deeds of brutality and amazing fortitude which that metal inspired are graven deep in the record of conquest. Merely the mention of such names as Cortés and Pizarro, the Inca Atahualpa, Potosi, de la Borda, or Pachuca calls up visions of wealth such as the world has rarely witnessed. Never had the world seen so much silver as was brought by the treasure fleets from Vera Cruz, Cartagena, Amatique, Nombre de Dios, and Porto Bello. The arrival of the white metal in Spain put new life into the economy of Europe, made possible the notable voyages of Magellan, Vespucci, Sebastian Cabot, and, indeed, financed in large part the colonization of Latin America.

One hears fabulous stories about silver in the Spanish colonies. There is nothing mythical about the richness of the mines of Potosi in Bolivia. However, the story of the Indian who discovered those mines by the accidental displacement of a shrub is probably just a "story." These mines were worked by Pizarro and his brother. An interesting tale about silver in Costa Rica is told by Del Mar. So productive were the mines there that, on the occasion when the owner's first child was christened, the father laid a triple row of silver bricks from the palace to the church. Similar stories are to be heard in Mexico.

Among the several estimates available of the silver production of Latin America are those of Soetbeer, Lexis, and Haring. To anyone examining the ancient records of the Spanish trade in treasure, it quickly becomes apparent that the various values as given in the records can be reconciled with only the greatest difficulty and some

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<sup>1</sup> Anyone interested in a more extensive and technical discussion of silver is referred to "The Silver Market," Trade Promotion Series No. 139, by Herbert M. Bratter, issued by the United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce and sold by the Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

uncertainty. Some very interesting researches in that field were published in 1929 by Dr. Earl J. Hamilton, in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Cambridge).

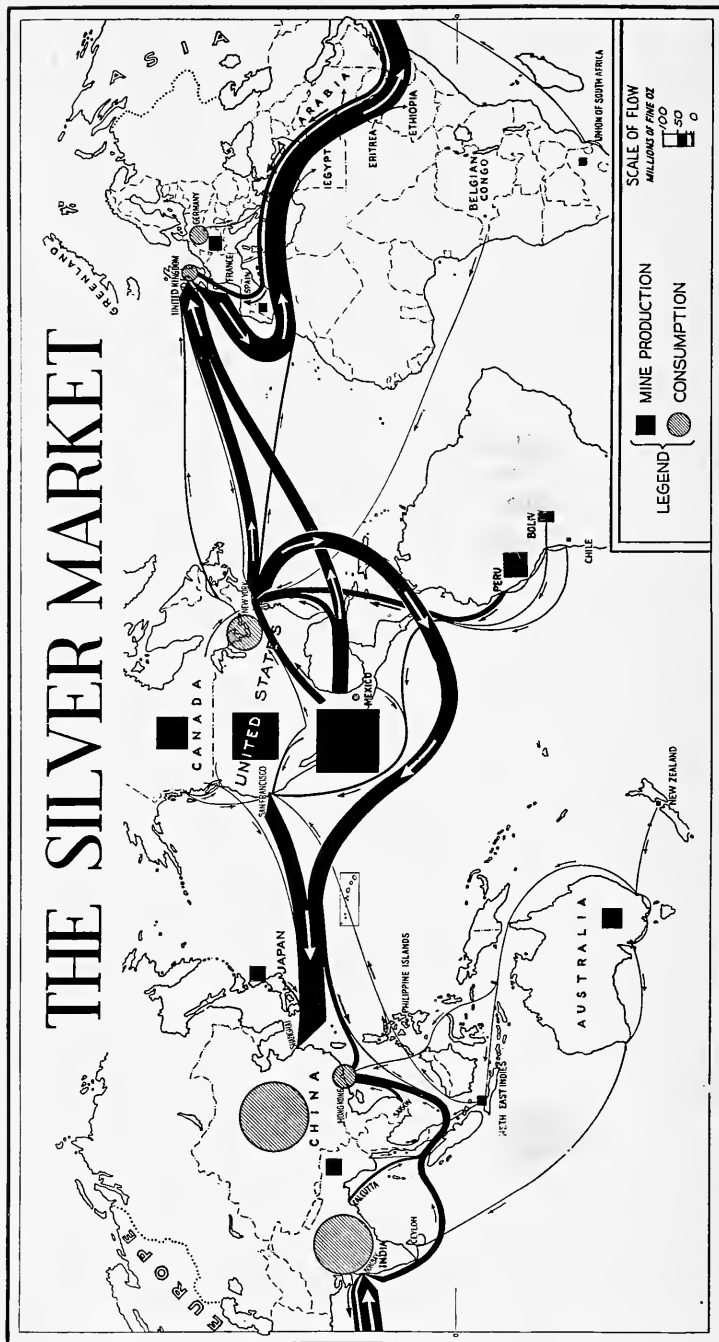
To-day silver no longer means so much to Europeans as it once did. But, although four full centuries have passed, the Americas still play the leading part in the production of silver. Mexico is still the world's chief silver-producing country, followed by the United States, Canada, and Peru. From 1493 to date, about 36 per cent of all the silver mined has come from Mexico, 21 per cent from the United States, 4 per cent from Canada, and 9 per cent from Peru. To put the matter in another way, from the time of Columbus to the present, about 84 per cent of the silver mined has come from the two Americas; South America has yielded about 23 per cent and North America over 61 per cent.

Naturally there have been changes in the relative position of producing countries. The last-century discoveries of important silver mines in the western part of the United States pushed the United States to a leading position, which it held until 1897. Since then, with few exceptions, Mexico has maintained the first place. Hence, we find that of the 248,000,000 fine ounces of silver mined in 1930 42 per cent came from Mexico, 21 per cent from the United States, 7 per cent from Peru, 75 per cent from all North America and 85 per cent from both Americas.

What becomes of this silver? Some is used in the arts and industries, although relatively little is so consumed in Latin America. Some is used as subsidiary currency in occidental countries. In this connection it is interesting to observe that, despite their importance as silver producers, no American country, not even Mexico, maintains silver as the standard of value. Indeed, silver is to be found as a full standard of value only in China and Hong Kong, to which we may add perhaps one or two small areas elsewhere, of insignificant standing commercially. The bulk of the world's silver is taken by the people of China and India, in which countries the metal is prized as a store of savings. The hoarders of Asia seem to have an insatiable appetite for silver and, but for them, in all likelihood it would have ceased years ago to be classed as a precious metal.

There is presented herewith a map on which has been indicated how silver moved to market during 1930. The squares show the chief mine production of silver; the circles indicate the leading buyers of silver; and the flow lines indicate the movements from mine to "consumer"; and also here and there a return flow, such as that from India to England, or the much smaller flow from England to the United States.

# THE SILVER MARKET



Courtesy of United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce

THE PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION, AND CONSUMPTION OF SILVER IN 1930

NOTE.—Certain intra-European and overland movements elsewhere are not shown.

The principal steps in the marketing of silver are: The production from American mines; the refining of silver in the New World, especially in the United States; the long-established bullion market of London, now closely rivaled by that of New York; the consumption of silver by the industries and arts and by the mints; and—a matter of major importance—the absorption of the metal by Chinese and British Indians. All of these steps have a part in determining the price of silver, for silver is a world commodity, and its price is a world-wide price.

In recent years the world price of silver has experienced severe depreciation. Thus, whereas the price per fine ounce rose from an annual average of 56.3 cents in 1914 to one of 112.1 cents in 1919, and—despite a severe decline the next year—maintained a level of around 63 cents for nine years, subsequently the average dropped from 55.3 cents in 1929 to 38.5 cents in 1930 and 28.7 cents in 1931. It would be difficult to describe in a short space all the causes which brought about this decline. We must keep in mind that the price of silver is no longer stabilized anywhere by law and that, like the price of any other commodity, it is simply the result of the interaction of demand and supply. The price of any commodity reflects both the commodity value of gold—in other words, the general commodity price level—and, secondly, those conditions peculiar to the particular commodity itself. That the world price level for all commodities has declined severely is in itself enough to explain a very large part of silver's price decline. The index number of wholesale commodity prices in the United States was 100 in 1926, 96.5 in 1929, and only 71.1 in 1931. In September, 1932, it was but 65.3. Gold having thus appreciated greatly, naturally the price of silver in terms of gold has depreciated.

Then, too, there have been special circumstances to depress the price of silver. Some are more obvious, although not necessarily more important, than others. For example, in 1926 the Indian Government decided to sell its surplus stock of silver. Sales commenced in 1927 and, by March 31, 1932, 127,581,564 fine ounces of such silver had been sold. Clearly, this injured the price of silver. If we make a rough estimate of the total supply of silver sold on the market by all sellers annually between 1920 and 1928 (including the British Indian silver, the demonetized metal sold in Europe, and the product of the world's mines), we find there was a decided upward trend. On the other hand, no new outlet made its appearance, India and China continuing to be the largest absorbers of the white metal. The demand of these countries is in turn determined by their prosperity and affected favorably or unfavorably by such factors as good crops, destructive civil warfare or unrest, changes in their balance of pay-

ments with western countries, and speculation. When a severe business depression in 1930 affected the occidental demand for far eastern goods, naturally the natives of China and India were unable to acquire the exchange with which to maintain their large purchases of silver—except at a concession in the price of the metal.

How about the supply of this commodity sold each year? Is it limited to the annual product of the mines? The answer is, "No." In one sense, practically all the silver ever mined by man constitutes the supply, at least potentially, because silver is virtually an indestructible metal. Comparatively little is lost in abrasion of coins or is believed to be otherwise used up or irretrievably misplaced. A large part of the mined silver rests in Asiatic hoards in the form of jewelry, bullion, or coin, and another large quantity of the metal is scattered throughout the Occident in the form of table services, decorative articles, and the like. Such silver does not constitute part of the active market supply. But it may some time be melted and offered for sale. In this manner silver does, in fact, come back to the market at intervals, again and again; the silver quarter in one's pocket may contain some of the very metal taken from the Inca Atahualpa by Pizarro. Silver is, therefore, a commodity which differs from most other commodities—foodstuffs or textiles, for example—because there is practically no limit to the number of times it may be "consumed."

With the world stock of silver being added to each year by the output of mines, this stock, "visible" and "invisible," is clearly many times greater than the new supply currently on the market. The latter, of course, is not any fixed quantity, but varies from time to time, as will be explained. In 1931, for example, the new silver estimated to have been sold on the world market was about 196,000,000 troy ounces. Old silver, obtained almost exclusively from melted coin, and physically transported from a seller to a buyer at least once during that year, added an estimated 60,000,000 ounces. The total of the two figures just mentioned indicates that actual metallic silver to the amount of at least 256,000,000 ounces changed hands one or more times during 1931. There is no available method of calculating the total sales involved in handling this silver—that is, the turnover. A single lot may have changed in ownership many times.

If it is impossible to calculate total sales involved in the marketing of the new production and demonetized metal, it is equally impossible to keep track of what for convenience may be termed the "invisible" silver constantly being bought and sold—that is, of the foreign-exchange transactions of silver-standard countries. This "invisible" silver is an important factor in the silver market. For example, when a Chinese importer of motor cars pays his bill by selling Shanghai taels in order to buy gold dollars, he is adding to the supply of silver



on the world market every bit as much as is the Mexican mine owner when he ships his bullion to the United States. China, the only remaining silver-standard country of importance, annually imports several hundred million dollars' worth of merchandise. That means the invisible supply of silver on the market is increased by that amount; and, just as in the case of the physical metal annually marketed (where the actual metal may be sold again and again), so in the case of this "invisible" supply—foreign exchange—there are sales and resales. In other words, a small group of active Chinese exchange speculators



Photograph by W. V. Alford

#### OLD PATIO PROCESS WORKINGS, PERU

The process of treating ore by amalgamation was introduced in 1572, when high-grade surface ore became nearly exhausted. After a thorough grinding, the ore was mixed with salt and quicksilver and puddled by the treading of mules. The process has been in use up to the present time by Indians in certain sections of the country.

may greatly augment the volume of transactions in the silver market by buying and selling, rebuying and reselling, silver bullion or exchange between silver-standard and gold-standard countries. Total purchases and sales of all kinds in the silver market are thus obviously impossible of determination.

On the demand side of the silver market, the Chinese and Indian takings of silver are by far the most important, and are generally considered to be in a class by themselves.

The Indian Government has since 1927 been one of the most important sellers of silver, derived from the coins returned from circu-

lation. That government, consequently, has no occasion to import silver on its own account. The Indian imports are private transactions and destined for use by the Indian people in the form of bullion or jewelry, as a store of value—an investment, if you will. In the form of jewelry, silver in India also serves as a token of social standing.

The Chinese consumption is somewhat different from the Indian. The Chinese authorities do not ordinarily have occasion to sell silver on the bullion market, but buy it regularly for coinage. Another difference between the two nations is that China, unlike British India, is on the silver standard. Silver is China's main measure of value and, both in the form of coin and of bullion, it serves the purpose of money. In India the currency is linked to the pound sterling, and the rupee currency circulates at a higher value than, and without regard to, its bullion value, very much as does the peso in Mexico.

Occasionally it becomes necessary or desirable for China or India to export silver; but, in the main, those two peoples are heavy importers of the metal and form the chief support of the silver market. For example, in 1931 the net consumption of silver in India and China together was 45.4 per cent of the total sold in the world that year (that total including the sales by the Indian Government and by Indian silver-mining companies). Of the non-Asiatic supply, the consumption of China and India naturally formed a much larger percentage.

The second large factor in the demand for silver is the consumption by the arts and industries in other countries, chiefly in the United States, Canada, Great Britain, and Germany. Without going into too much detail, it may be said that about 44 per cent of the silver thus used is devoted to sterling silverware, about 14 per cent to plated silverware, and 42 per cent to other industrial consumption (for photographic film, chemicals, and the like), these figures being based on 1930 estimates for the United States and Canada. Until 1929 the consumption of silver in the arts and industries revealed an irregular upward trend, but the business depression following that year affected it.

Finally, the consumption of silver in the coinage of subsidiary money in western countries is a considerable factor in the price of silver. Such consumption of silver, however, is more irregular and much smaller than either the purchases of the far eastern countries or the industrial demand of the Occident.

The accompanying table shows the estimated supply of and demand for silver in 1930 and 1931, taking, for this purpose, the estimates published by Handy and Harman, a well-known New York firm of dealers and brokers. The estimates for 1931 are subject to revision.

*The silver market in 1930 and 1931*

[According to Handy and Harman, "Review of the Silver Market for 1931"]

Item	1930		1931	
	Millions of fine ounces	Per cent of total	Millions of fine ounces	Per cent of total
<b>SUPPLY</b>				
New production .....	246.8	77.5	196.1	76.2
Sales by Indian Government .....	29.5	9.3	35.0	14.1
Other governmental sales of demonetized silver .....	42.0	13.2	24.5	9.6
Total .....	318.3	100.0	255.6	<sup>2</sup> 100.0
<b>DEMAND</b>				
Net Indian consumption .....	94.5	29.7	57.0	22.3
Net Chinese consumption <sup>1</sup> .....	123.0	38.9	59.0	23.1
Total Indian and Chinese consumption .....	217.5	68.6	116.0	45.4
German consumption .....	8.0	2.5	28.2	11.0
Arts and industries, United States and Canada .....	29.5	9.3	30.5	11.9
Great Britain .....	6.0	1.9	10.0	3.9
Mexico .....	1.0	.3	1.0	.4
Total arts and industries .....	36.5	11.5	41.5	16.2
Coinage:				
United States only .....	6.1	1.9	2.4	1.0
Hong Kong .....	14.0	4.4		
Otherwise unaccounted for .....	36.2	11.4	67.5	26.4
Total .....	318.3	<sup>2</sup> 100.0	255.6	100.0

<sup>1</sup> Includes Hong Kong.<sup>2</sup> Abbreviation of the items accounts for the slight discrepancy in the summation of these columns.

## SILVER'S PLACE IN OCCIDENT AND ORIENT

In certain important respects the function of silver in the economic life of various nations is quite different in the Occident and the Orient. In the latter area it is primarily a store of wealth and, as already stated, in some places a standard of value as well. In the former area it is primarily a commodity produced by miners for what it will bring in the market. Its use as subsidiary currency is a matter of convenience and habit in the West, only remotely connected with the bullion value of coin.

In Mexico the metal takes an important place in that country's list of exports. Since the decline in price during the last few years, however, and the consequent decline in mine production, the importance of silver to Mexico has diminished. In 1929 silver formed about 16 per cent of the value of Mexico's commodity exports; in 1930, 12 per cent. Although Mexico is sometimes spoken of as a silver-standard country, it is not on the silver standard, despite the demonetization of gold in 1931. The quotations of Mexican currency show no relationship with the price of silver, the peso being worth considerably more than its silver content and being kept above the value thereof by limitation of the circulating media.

The United States takes second place as a producer of silver. American mining capital, moreover, is invested in silver-producing mines in various foreign countries, notably Mexico, and to a minor degree in Peru, Canada, Honduras, and Chile. In Mexico, American-owned mines yielded over 54 per cent of the 1927 production. As a part of the United States export trade, the value of silver, including reexports, was equivalent to slightly more than 1 per cent of that of the country's commodity exports in 1931; the figures were \$26,500,000 for silver and \$2,424,000,000 for commodities. The value of mineral products of the United States in 1929 was as follows:

Item	Per cent
Silver.....	0. 6
Other metals.....	24. 8
Nonmetallic minerals.....	74. 6
Total.....	100. 0

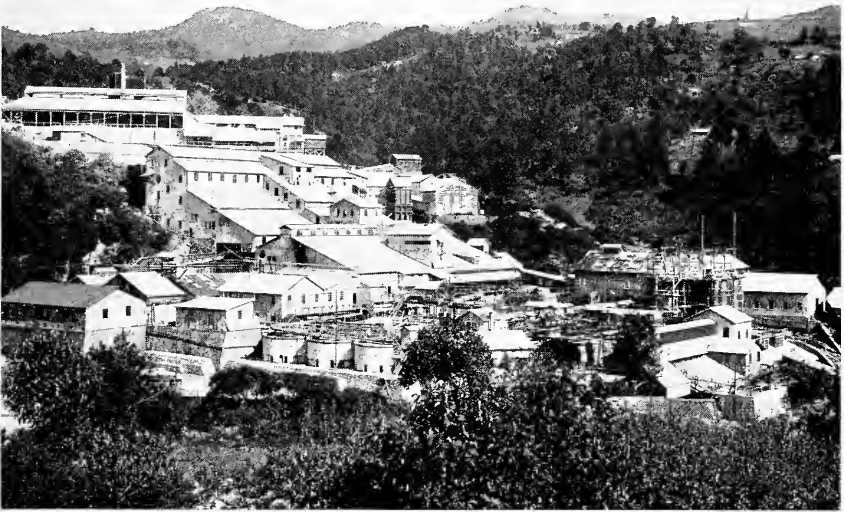
#### SILVER IN AMERICAN CURRENCY SYSTEMS

The part that silver plays in the United States currency system is sometimes overlooked. From 1793 to 1931, inclusive, the face value of silver money coined in the United States was approximately one-third of that of United States gold coin minted. Of the amount estimated to be in circulation and in the Treasury, on June 30, 1932, the face value of the silver was nearly one-half that of the gold coins. It should be noted that most of the United States monetary stock of gold consists not of coin, but of bullion; hence the part played by gold in our currency system is greater than would otherwise appear. Since, by the act of 1900, the Government is obliged to maintain all forms of American money at parity with gold, silver certificates (which represent standard silver dollars on deposit with the Treasury) are freely accepted by the public at face value, regardless of the fluctuating bullion value of the standard silver dollars they represent. In demanding silver certificates rather than standard silver dollars, the public displays a decided preference for the more convenient paper money. Of the 380,000,000 standard silver dollars in circulation at the end of August, 1932, 350,000,000 were represented by silver certificates.

Compared with all money in circulation (\$5,459,000,000), silver certificates and coin (totaling \$645,000,000 face value) comprised about 12 per cent. Of this, standard silver dollars and silver certificates in circulation formed about 7 per cent of the total in March, 1932, but standard silver-dollar coins were less than six-tenths of 1 per cent of the total. These percentages represent money in the hands of the public and in banks. It is estimated that 33.4 per cent of the silver certificates and 43.7 per cent of the silver dollars outside the Treasury (in 1928) were in the hands of banks.

It is interesting to observe that, in the currency systems of Latin America, silver has a place not entirely limited to that of subsidiary money. Mexico, as is well known, depends on silver to a large extent for its monetary medium, even though silver is not the standard of value there. In September, 1932, about 250,000,000 silver pesos were in circulation in Mexico.

Four Latin American central banks make some provision for silver in their reserves. In Bolivia up to one-tenth of the notes and deposits



MODERN MILLS NEAR PACHUCA, MEXICO

Since the discovery of silver mines by the Spanish conquerors in 1522, Mexico has maintained, with the exception of a comparatively few years, first place as a producer of that metal.

may be secured by silver. In Colombia, where a 40 per cent gold or gold-exchange reserve is required against the notes of the Banco de la República, an additional reserve of 25 per cent must be held in the form of legal currency; of the latter reserve, half may be silver. Guatemala permits silver in its reserves to the extent of one-thirtieth thereof. Peru permits silver to form one-fifth of the reserve. That country, it may be of interest, has legally limited the minting of silver to 23,000,000 soles, the amount coined to date being at least 17,500,000.

Colombia has recently taken certain steps to circulate silver in a manner not unlike the silver-certificate system in the United States. In October, 1931, Colombia decreed the coinage of 2,000,000 pesos in silver, to be circulated in the form of silver certificates. The banks, moreover, may now keep silver as legal reserve in place of gold.

Argentina and Brazil use no silver currency. Bolivia has only a few old silver coins in circulation. Ecuador uses very little silver currency; Paraguay none. Costa Rica has about 1,500,000 colones of silver coins in use, Nicaragua about \$2,230,000, Panama about 500,000 balboas, and Uruguay possibly 12,000,000 pesos.

While statistics are always boresome, it may be of interest to refer to a recent compilation from United States Mint reports, showing coinage of silver by all countries from 1900 to 1929, inclusive, as consuming 2,111,600,000 fine ounces. The leading countries in the list are: British India, 863,400,000; the United States, 236,000,000 Russia, 151,700,000; and Mexico, 150,400,000 fine ounces.

The basic circulating medium of Honduras is silver. Whereas that country was on a fiduciary silver standard for many years, with the peso as the unit, there is now in process a reformation of the currency with a view to basing the currency on gold. The new monetary unit is called "lempira" instead of "peso." Silver lempiras are the major domestic circulating media, backed by a 50 per cent reserve in United States dollars. The shift is being effected from a silver currency, valued according to scarcity, to one valued in relation to the gold dollar, when and if free conversion of lempiras to dollars comes about. The circulation of silver lempiras is now about 1,300,000; soon, it is planned, another 700,000 will be issued.

It is estimated that there are 13 countries and colonies in which silver forms the leading monetary medium, even though not the standard of value. These 13 countries are Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, British India, China, Eritrea, French Indo-China, Honduras, Hong Kong, Iraq, Mexico, Netherland East Indies, Nyasaland, Persia, and Siam. Hong Kong is included, although its trade is largely covered by the Chinese figures. Of the world's merchandise imports, these countries accounted for 7.6 per cent in 1930 and 7.7 per cent in 1931; of the world's exports, 9.5 per cent in 1930 and 9.4 per cent in 1931. They are more important as sellers of merchandise than as buyers.

#### THE NEW YORK SILVER MARKET

The principal features of the New York silver market are (1) spot silver, the informal telephone market made up of banks, bullion brokers, bullion dealers, smelting and refining companies, and the like; (2) the official price; and, since June 15, 1931, (3) futures, the recently inaugurated trading in silver futures on the National Metal Exchange of New York.

According to long-standing practice, business in silver has for many years been done over the telephone, either by direct negotiation between seller and buyer or through the intervention of a broker. In New York the principal buyers of silver are banks with branches or correspondents in the Far East or in London. These banks repre-

sent the Chinese and Indian demand. The principal sellers are the large smelting and refining companies, which either mine silver themselves or buy it, in the form of ore and unrefined bullion, from mining companies. Sometimes they do both. The large metal companies do not sell silver in lots of less than 50,000 fine ounces. As there are few manufacturing companies requiring silver in such large quantities, purchases by the trade are usually made from bullion dealers, of whom there are two in or near New York. By "the trade" is meant the American and Canadian manufacturers of sterling and plated silverware, principally, and the industrial (chemical) demand. The photographic industry is a large consumer, and the largest manufacturers of film and photographic paper are in a position to buy directly from the leading metal companies.

Since the New York market in spot silver is carried on very informally, there is naturally no record of the total business done, nor the prices obtained by traders during any given period. Hence, an informal method of recording the trend of the market came to be evolved—the "official" price of silver.

The "official" price is published in the daily newspapers in New York and the leading metal-market dailies and magazines. The margin by which the official price is usually lower than the prevailing market price represents the carrying and marketing charges.

Mining companies deliver simply crude ore or bullion, which contains a percentage of silver. Probably the ore will be predominantly lead, copper, or zinc. If the quantity delivered is not large, it may be set aside at the smelter until a large enough quantity has accumulated to warrant treatment. Thus, it may be weeks, or even months, before the silver content of such ore becomes available for sale by the smelter. The smelters and refiners prefer not to "take a position" in silver; therefore, they hedge on all silver purchased in the form of ore or crude bullion. Because of the delay that generally occurs in the reduction of the latter, the existence of a futures market is of considerable importance to the metal companies.

Prior to June, 1931, it was possible to make future contracts for delivery of silver in New York by utilizing the foreign-exchange market. By means of such contracts, hedging on exchange contracts involving silver currencies could be arranged on approximately a 90-day basis. Such arrangements were made directly, or with a broker's intervention. But there were no published quotations or other data on the volume of business done.

Since June 15, 1931, the National Metal Exchange (Inc.), of New York, has maintained facilities for trading in silver for future delivery, contracts being made for delivery during the current month or any of the 11 subsequent months. As a result of the initiation of trading in silver futures, it became possible to hedge on transactions in New York involving silver or silver currencies up to one year in



Courtesy of Elena Calderon

#### ANTIQUE SILVERWARE FROM BOLIVIA

This group of hand-made objects includes two elaborately chased shawl pins, a platter, a silver mounted gourd maté cup, a pair of spurs, a combination pin and spoon, and a small bowl.

advance, instead of three months. This has proved to be a useful facility. The daily publication of details of business done attracted some speculation. The latter feature of the use to which the public has put the new trading facilities has been criticized as disturbing to the market, as it no doubt was during the first third of November, 1931, when speculation drove the price of silver up by 20 per cent and then caused it to drop. However, it may be pointed out that speculation in the Far East will in any case continue to affect silver and Chinese exchange.

#### THE LONDON BULLION MARKET

The London bullion market was for years the most important market of its kind in the world, and some claim that it still is. There is no doubt, however, that the New York market rivals it very closely in importance and at least on certain occasions becomes more important than the London market. When one thinks of the price of silver being a world price and of all the silver which is being marketed in the world flowing, as it were, into a common pool from which demand is met, it becomes evident that no single market is "the" market. The market is made by the meeting of demand and



supply. The place where the greatest volume of demand and supply is canceled is, for that particular day, the leading silver market. Of course, there is no selling unless there is buying and no buying unless there is selling, in such a market as New York or London. To a large degree, it is believed, silver sold in New York figures again in the London market, where, purchased from America, the metal is resold to British Indians or Chinese. The metal may actually never be sent to London. It may, indeed, be shipped from New York through the Panama Canal or overland to the Pacific Ocean and thence to China. Such a course would not prevent it from being bought and sold in London, due to the wonderful facilities which exist to-day in the way of cable and radio communications. As a matter of fact, it is a very common thing to find silver shipped to one destination on a bill of lading providing for optional delivery at some other place en route or even beyond the first destination. Thus, silver may be shipped from London to Bombay, "option Shanghai," or to Shanghai "option Yokohama or Hong Kong."

The London market being participated in by persons the world over, it might be supposed that such a wide market would be complex in its operation; yet the actual workings are relatively simple. Normally most of London's silver-bullion business is transacted in a 15 or 30 minute meeting, once each business day, of representatives of four long established firms of bullion brokers.

At 1.45 p. m. on week days and 11.30 a. m. on Saturdays the representatives of these bullion brokers meet at the office of one of them. Each of these brokerage firms receives orders from banks and others in England and from buyers and sellers in all parts of the world, the four firms together receiving all the silver-bullion orders coming to London. Such orders may refer to silver for immediate delivery, or for delivery at some future date.<sup>2</sup> For any given delivery—say, spot silver—the brokers at their meeting compare their buying and selling orders (which may mention a specified price or simply "at market") and fix the price at such a level as will effect the greatest number of transactions. It is presumably to the brokers' interest to do this, because their profit depends upon the volume of business they transact. Precise information on the actual conduct of business at the brokers' meetings is not made generally available. What supposedly takes place is that all orders for sale or purchase of silver bullion for spot delivery at the market are compared, then the orders for spot silver with the price specified by the broker's client. The price which will enable the greatest volume of business to be done is usually the price fixed. On a given day it may be possible for the four firms to execute most of the day's business each on its own books.

<sup>2</sup> During and following the war, for 4 years and 9 months ended May 9, 1919, trading in future silver was suspended.

Again, a single broker may have a considerable excess of buying over selling orders, and find it necessary to match such orders with the other brokerage firms' selling or buying orders.

The price of silver for future delivery would, of course, depend upon the spot price, the prevailing rate of interest, and other considerations.

#### NOT ALL SILVER MARKETS ARE COMPETITORS

The various silver markets are not always competitors. New York, which on balance may be termed essentially a "selling" market, in the long run does not compete with Shanghai or Bombay, essentially "buying" markets. New York and Shanghai or Bombay may be regarded rather as supplementing each other. London's position in the silver bullion market is entirely that of a middleman. In the silver which it buys it is a "buying" market, supplementing New York, and, to some extent (demonetized silver), other markets, and as between London and Bombay, the former essentially is a seller of bullion, the latter a buyer. London is Bombay's chief immediate source of silver bullion.

Speculative transactions involving silver or the Shanghai tael tend to make the world silver market a unit. The existence of almost immediate means of communication makes it possible for a speculator in one part of the world to be a factor in the silver market on the opposite side of the world, to be in and out of that market daily and even more frequently, and to participate in several silver or silver-exchange markets simultaneously.

Of the several advantages London possesses as a silver market, that of being a trade-financing center probably has been of major importance. The silver bullion market first grew to importance in London when silver was much more widely used than now as a standard of value and settler of international trade balances. British capital, moreover, being early invested in mines producing silver, there was an added, although lesser, reason why London's silver market developed. In the case of New York, the international trade-financing factor, although present, has not been the most important, but it has gained considerable weight in recent years. More important has been New York's trade in silver bullion. As silver became essentially a North American product, and the United States for years the largest producer, New York quite naturally came to play an important part in the marketing of silver. While the United States is no longer the leading silver producer, New York's silver market is more important than ever.

# THE SILVER CENTURIES

By ADAM CARTER

*Pan American Union Staff*

THE optimist who said that every cloud has a silver lining would nowadays need all of his optimism to think that such a lining could be profitably employed. Silver has come upon evil days, and its future is surrounded by uncertainty. But what a glorious past it has! It played a most important part in making possible those voyages which led to the discovery of new lands and seas, and it was one of the main supports upon which a mighty empire was reared. At its call new cities rose, new nations were born, new life was given to the Old World. Ships were built to carry and to protect the treasured metal, fortresses appeared to guard the harbors whence it came, and fortress-like buildings were erected to store it.

The quest for silver and gold sent the Spaniards far into the unknown regions of the new-found world. That they did not always find the coveted riches, or were disappointed in what they obtained, should not be surprising. But their staunch belief that these metals would be found and the fortitude with which they carried out their explorations are truly amazing.

In 1526 Sebastian Cabot, then in the service of the King of Spain, reached the River Plate, and seeing some Indians wearing silver ornaments forthwith gave the stream the name of "Río de la Plata," literally River of Silver. Then he spent three years in those regions, in a fruitless search for the white metal. The ornaments he had seen came from barter with inland tribes.

Cortés was more fortunate in his conquest of Mexico, but the gold and silver he found in the Aztec metropolis whose ruins may still be seen in what is now Mexico City did not come from any near-by mines. The treasure found was so far below expectations that, strange as it may seem, some of the men who had accompanied Cortés afterwards died in poverty. So dissatisfied were the soldiers with their share of the booty that they subjected Cuauhtémoc, the last Aztec Emperor, and one of his lords to torment by fire, in order to draw from them a confession about a treasure the Indians were supposed to have buried. Nothing was learned because Cuauhtémoc could not be made to talk. When his companion cried out to him: "Confess, I can not bear this any longer!" the Emperor replied: "Dost thou think I am on a bed of roses?"

Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru, certainly could not have complained about a scarcity of the coveted metals. He had imprisoned Atahualpa, the last Inca, or King, of Peru, and the ransom, according to some historians, consisted in filling two rooms full of silver and one room full of gold.

A glance at the map of Latin America shows clearly the faith the Spaniards had in silver. Argentina, the country of Cabot's *Rio de la Plata*, derives its name, of course, from the Latin *argentum*. The name *La Plata* was given to cities, provinces, harbors, islands, mountains, and lakes in Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, and Panama.



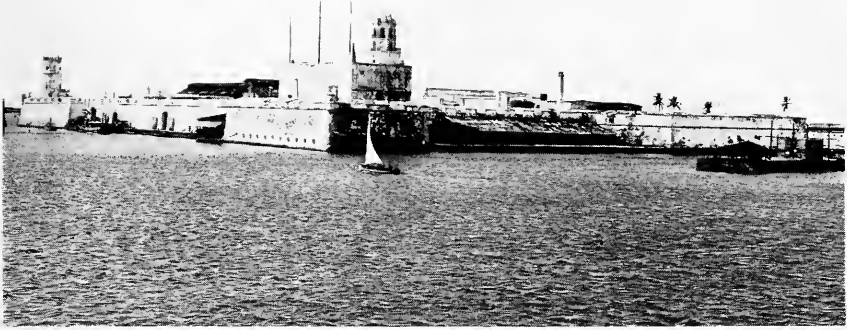
Photograph by I. F. Scheeler

#### POTOSI, BOLIVIA

The city which was at one time the richest in the New World owed its founding in 1546 to the silver deposits in the mountain which towers over it.

The first silver mines to be discovered by the conquerors in Mexico, then called New Spain, were at Taxco, a little town in the Guerrero Mountains which was then occupied by Indians. This discovery took place in 1522 and marked the beginning of the transformation of Taxco, which to-day is an enchanting relic of colonial times.

The existence of silver in the lofty Mount Potosi in Bolivia was known to the Indians in pre-Conquest days, but it was not until 1546 that the city of Potosi was founded by the Spaniards and exploitation begun. In a little over a year 14,000 people had congregated in what proved to be the richest place in all the new domains. The Potosi mines are credited with having produced a large part of the silver



FORT OF SAN JUAN DE ULÚA, VERA CRUZ

For nearly four centuries this fortress has stood guard in the harbor through which have passed incredible amounts of silver since the first exploitation of the Mexican mines by the Spaniards.

exported from South America. To-day Potosi is decorously conservative; tin means more to it than silver, but the days are not so distant when the city was extravagantly rich, when money overflowed and prices reached fantastic levels. The expression "*Eso vale un Potosí*" (It is worth a Potosi) is still used in the Spanish language to convey the idea of enormous wealth.

The discovery of the amalgamation process in 1557 revolutionized the silver industry and gave it new impetus in Hispanic America. This process consists in applying mercury to silver ores, in order to eliminate extraneous substances and reduce the metal to a pure state. It is generally agreed that credit for its discovery and employment as a practical method belongs to Bartolomé de Medina, a mineralogist born in Seville early in the XVIth century, who came to Mexico in 1555.

At first silver was carried to the mother country in single vessels, but as exports increased the need for better protection led to the formation of the treasure fleets. These armadas, "teeming with men and bristling with arms," as one author has it, sailed at regular intervals over established routes, almost, if not completely, without regard to the operations of enemies. As additional protection, the waters around Andalusia and certain parts of the Indies were policed by war vessels. It was ordered by royal command that the New Spain fleet should leave in April and the Tierra Firme fleet, which served the mainland of South America, in August.

Vera Cruz in Mexico (its full name is "*Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz*"—Rich Town of the True Cross), Amatique in Guatemala, Trujillo in

Honduras, Porto Bello and Nombre de Dios in Panama, and Cartagena in Colombia became the silver ports of the New World.

The treasure from Mexico was taken from the highlands to Vera Cruz over trails that began eight or ten thousand feet above the sea. The output of the Peruvian mines was placed at Callao on the Pacific, or South Sea, fleet, taken to Panama City and thence to Nombre de Dios or Porto Bello, where it was transferred to the Tierra Firme, or mainland, galleons. These also went to Cartagena, the port of call for silver sent down the Magdalena River, from Colombia, Ecuador, and parts of Peru.

Fortifications were erected in all these ports to protect them from all possible enemies, especially against pirates, who never lost a chance to "twist the Spaniard's beard"; Drake played havoc with Nombre de Dios in 1596; Panama City was destroyed by Morgan in 1671, and had to be rebuilt on a better site. But the protection given all these harbors certainly was not to be held in scorn. Cartagena was surrounded by walls so strong that to this day they stand almost intact. The castle of San Juan de Ulúa, in Vera Cruz, ranked as a first-class fortress even in the XIXth century. Besides, history shows that piracy, in this case, did not pay. It emphatically did not, according to reliable sources, cover what may be termed its "cost of production," the amounts of treasure taken from the Spaniards by foreign powers being but a small percentage of what was safely carried over.

The ultimate goal of all American silver was the *Casa de la Contratación*, or House of Trade, in Seville. Here it was weighed by an official and placed in chests in the treasure chamber, whose substantial walls, strong doors, and double iron bars afforded ample protection. Besides, the treasure chamber and chests had triple locks, and one of the three keys required to open them was carried by each of the three officials of the House. To increase the protection, in times of unrest special guards were kept on duty at night.

To give an idea of production in the Indies, it may be said that from 1521 to 1660 more than 37,000,000 pounds of pure silver were shipped to Spain. The fortunes made from silver were, for those days, incredible. The *Veta* (vein) *de la Soledad*, near Pachuca, Mexico, yielded 6,000,000 pesos in one year, 1774. The owner of the mine, Don Pedro de Terreros, celebrated by presenting to King Charles the Third of Spain a 120-gun frigate—the equivalent of a modern ship of the line—and a loan of 1,000,000 pesos without interest.

The output of the *Valenciana* mine in Guanajuato, Mexico, has been estimated at more than 800,000,000 pesos. During the lifetime of its first owner, the Conde de Rul, it produced 226,000,000 pesos. The Count built several magnificent churches, each of which cost from 500,000 to 1,000,000 pesos. On an eminence near the mine he

erected the Church of San Cayetano, which is one of the most beautiful in Mexico. It has three splendid Churrigueresque altars, and once supported a magnificent service, maintained by contributions from the miners, amounting to 50,000 pesos annually.

José de la Borda, another mining magnate, in gratitude for the benefits derived from his enterprises, in 1757 built a church at Taxco which is considered to be perhaps the most complete monument of ecclesiastical art that exists in the Western Hemisphere. Many of the devout people of Taxco still come early every morning to begin

THE CATHEDRAL AT  
TAXCO, MEXICO

The wealth of silver from mines in the vicinity of Taxco made possible in the eighteenth century the construction of this splendid cathedral by the mining engineer, José de la Borda.



their day by kneeling and praying in front of this church. La Borda also endowed the Cathedral at Mexico City and other churches with princely gifts, and to create a retreat for himself spent more than a million pesos on a magnificent garden, in the Italian style, located at Cuernavaca. The residence built in connection with this garden was later on occupied during the summer months by Maximilian, Mexico's ill-fated Emperor.

Mexico, which has produced more than a third of the world's silver supply, managed to hold its own even during the XIXth century,

when events began to mark the decline of silver. A considerable amount of the metal produced in Mexico found its way to the Far East, and the old Mexican silver peso is said to hold the honor of having been the most widely circulated coin in the world. In China, prices used to be quoted in dollars "Mex."

The future of silver is to-day undecided, and the empire it once supported is a thing of the past. The treasure chests are empty. The harbors whose waters bore the galleons laden with gold and silver bullion have turned to more prosaic pursuits. Some of the old forts are in ruins; grass grows in the moats and weeds have conquered the crumbling stones.

But the walls of Cartagena are as massive as ever; the castle of San Juan de Ulúa still keeps watch over the Villa Rica de la Vera Cruz; and the sun still shines on the brilliant tiles of Taxco's church.



## AN INVESTMENT WHICH PAYS DIVIDENDS

By HELOISE BRAINERD

*Chief, Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union*

DURING the last few years an increasing stream of students from the twenty republics to the South of the Rio Grande has been flowing into the educational institutions of the United States. In 1931-32 over 1,200 were enrolled in universities and colleges, besides many in preparatory, commercial, and technical schools. Realizing the importance of this movement, which is helping the people of the United States to understand the Latin American countries through their acquaintance with these students, and preparing the latter to be interpreters of the United States upon their return home, the educational forces of this country are investing considerable sums in aiding these visitors to secure the training they seek—an investment which yields a steady income of better understanding and cooperation. At the present time about 35 institutions of higher education grant scholarships or fellowships to Latin Americans, and some 40 more offer them free tuition. In addition, generous fellowships are granted by certain foundations and associations. Although the depression has made it necessary to curtail these offers somewhat in the present academic year, a considerable number of students have received such aid, mainly for advanced study and research.

The John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation has brought 15 scholars and scientists from Argentina, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, and Puerto Rico—the only territorial divisions in which the necessary committees of selection have as yet been organized—for the study



of such varied subjects as plant pathology and city planning. These scholars, with the field in which each is specializing, are as follows, by countries:

ARGENTINA: Señor Nicanor Alurralde, civil engineer, Argentine State Railways, Buenos Aires, *Problems of railway engineering and management*; Señor Julio Fingerit, author, and Inspector of Secondary, Normal, and Special Schools of the Ministry of Education, Buenos Aires, *Contemporary literature*; Prof. Ángel Guido, civil engineer, architect, and Professor of the History of Architecture, University of the Littoral, Rosario, *Architecture and city planning*; Dr. Tomás Leandro Marini, Chief of the Division of Fisheries and Pisciculture of the Argentine Department of Agriculture, Buenos Aires, *Marine biology, oceanography, and pisciculture*.

CHILE: Prof. Fernando Devilat Rocca, of the Department of Architecture of the Catholic University of Chile, and Architect to the Board of Public Charities of Chile, *Hospital architecture and the organization of hospital services*; Dr. Manuel Elgueta Guérin, First Assistant in the Genetics Division, Experimental Station of the National Society of Agriculture of Chile, *Theoretical genetics and the application of genetics to the improvement of plants* (continuation of studies); Señorita Aída Laso Correa, Professor of Civil Government in the Academy of Fine Arts, University of Chile, and in one of the public high schools, Santiago, *Organization of educational guidance and students' welfare*.

CUBA: Dr. Carlos Guillermo Aguayo y Castro, Assistant Professor of Biology and Zoology, University of Habana, *Taxonomic studies in malacology and entomology* (continuation); Dr. Herminio Portell Vilá, Instructor in Cuban History, University of Habana, *Historical relationship between Cuba and the United States* (continuation of studies).

MEXICO: Dr. Donato G. Alarcón, physician, president of the Anti-Tuberculosis Committee of Tampico, *Clinical practice and treatment of tuberculosis and methods of procedure in antituberculosis public health campaigns*; Señor Enrique Beltrán, a biologist of Mexico City, who has for some years been engaged in research in marine biology in the waters adjacent to Mexico, *Marine biology, with especial reference to the Gulf of Mexico*; Dr. Juan Farill y Solares, physician, vice president of the Mexican Society of Eugenics; *The clinical theory and practice of orthopædics, with especial reference to the nonsurgical treatment of deformities in children*; Señor Francisco G. Moctezuma, civil engineer, Federal Department of Communication and Public Works, *The theory and practice of water supply engineering with especial reference to the disposition of sewage*; Prof. Moisés Sáenz, of Mexico City, one of the best known leaders of the "educational renaissance" in Mexico,

formerly Assistant Secretary of Education, *Indigenous groups in the southwestern part of the United States with especial reference to educational problems and procedures, as part of the larger problem of the cultural incorporation of the Indian in the Americas*. Professor Sáenz recently completed a tour of Central and South America on a special commission from the Mexican Department of Education for the purpose of studying this question.

PUERTO RICO: Dr. José A. B. Nolla, former Assistant Plant Pathologist, Puerto Rico Insular Experiment Station, *The inheritance of disease resistance in tobacco*.

As this is written, information as to where all the above-mentioned fellows will pursue their studies is not available. Doctor Marini, however, will be at the University of Michigan; Señorita Laso Correa, at Columbia University, and Doctor Nolla, at the Universities of Cornell, Wisconsin, and California. Señor Beltrán is working at Woods Hole and Columbia University, and Dr. Portell Vilá is carrying on research principally in the Library of Congress and the archives of the Department of State.

It will be remembered that the Guggenheim Foundation also grants Latin American Exchange Fellowships to scholars from the United States for study in Latin America, 10 such having been appointed for this year.

At present the Rockefeller Foundation has in the United States six fellows representing five countries. They were appointed as follows:

ARGENTINA: Dr. Rafael Grinfeld, graduate of the University of La Plata, assistant at the Physical Institute and teacher of physics at that University: To study physics at the University of California; Dr. Óscar Orias, graduate of the University of Buenos Aires, Assistant in the Institute of Physiology, University of Buenos Aires Medical School: To terminate in December studies in physiology carried on since 1930 at the Medical Schools of Western Reserve and Harvard Universities.

BRAZIL: Dr. Benjamin Alves Ribeiro, graduate of Sao Paulo Medical School, Assistant at the Institute of Hygiene, Sao Paulo: To continue studies in physiological hygiene and hygiene carried on during the past year, chiefly at the Johns Hopkins School of Hygiene.

HONDURAS: Dr. Guillermo Bustillo Oliva, graduate of the National Institute, San Salvador, with degrees also from the University of Liverpool, Chief of the Department of Infant Hygiene, National Health Department, Tegucigalpa: To study public health administration.

PANAMA: Dr. Amadeo Vicente-Mastellari, graduate of George Washington University Medical School: To continue study of tuberculosis in Jamaica and the United States in preparation for appoint-

ment as Assistant Director of Anti-tuberculosis Work in the Republic of Panama.

PERU: Dr. Alberto Hurtado, graduate of the University of San Marcos, Lima, and of Harvard Medical School, former member of the Research Department of the University of San Marcos: To continue the study of clinical medicine, physiology and pathology in altitude problems in the United States, chiefly in the Department of Medicine of the University of Rochester.

Two women's organizations offer fellowships which were awarded this year to three women from Colombia, Panama, and Chile, respectively. The Latin American Fellowship of the American Association of University Women went to Señorita Paulina Gómez-Vega, of Bogota, Colombia, a member of the staff of the Colombian National Institute of Hygiene. Señorita Gómez-Vega, who had previously studied in the United States, at the State College of Washington and the School of Hygiene and Public Health of the Johns Hopkins University, has returned to the latter to continue her work in the public health field, especially in bacteriology.

The General Federation of Women's Clubs bestowed its fellowship on Señorita Georgina Jiménez, of Panama, a graduate of the Normal School of that Republic and of New York University, with some teaching experience. She is specializing in education and sociology at Columbia University. Señorita Ema González, of Chile, who is studying education at the Ohio State University, is holding for the third year the fellowship of the Ohio State branch of the General Federation.

The Institute of International Education has been instrumental in securing fellowships or tuition scholarships for some 20 Latin American students. In this connection it should be added that an arrangement has been made between the Pan American Union and the Institute, which administers many international fellowships, whereby the Institute takes charge of those offered to Latin American students by universities and colleges in this country.

From funds granted by the Committee on Inter-American Relations of the National Foreign Trade Council the Institute has awarded fellowships to four Argentine students, selected with the assistance of the Argentine-American Cultural Institute in Buenos Aires. Of this group Señor Rodolfo Martínez de Vedia, a graduate of the Engineering School of the University of La Plata, is specializing in industrial organization at the Pennsylvania State College; Señor Isaac Benchetrit, who was trained in the Agricultural College of the University of Buenos Aires, has taken up dairying at Iowa State College; and Dr. David Efrón and Señorita Teodora Efrón, both graduates of the College of Philosophy and Letters of Buenos Aires University, are

studying psychology at Columbia University and Vassar College, respectively.

Furthermore, 15 other students have been given scholarships or fellowships through the Institute of International Education. They come from:

CHILE: Señorita Olga Avendaño Portius, a graduate of the University of Chile, is studying English at Wellesley; Señorita Rosa Huber, who has finished three years of work at the University of Chile, continues her study of English at the Western College for Women; Señor Argimiro Martínez, a graduate of the University of Chile, has a renewal of his scholarship in English and American education at Bowdoin College; Señor Rodolfo Zañartu Arratia, a graduate of the University of Concepcion, is studying at Columbia University general methods of teaching English.

COLOMBIA: Señor Hernán López continues his study of chemistry at Antioch College.

COSTA RICA: Señor Amado Jiménez Rosabal again holds a scholarship in the premedical course at the Johns Hopkins University; Señor Rodrigo Jiménez Rosabal is taking the premedical course at Wittenberg College, and Señor Humberto Julio Umaña the premedical course at the University of Florida.

CUBA: Señorita María Teresa Sansón Brunet, who attended the University of Habana for two years, is taking the liberal arts course at Seton Hill College; Señor Eduardo Lens, who received his LL. B. from Tulane University last June, has returned there to work for a higher degree.

ECUADOR: Señor Walter Américo Vela, a graduate of a German preparatory school, continues his studies in economics and international law at Swarthmore College.

PANAMA: Señorita Iva María Sáenz, graduate of the Normal School of Panama, who spent last year at the New Mexico State Teachers College at Silver City, is studying education at the Oklahoma College for Women.

PARAGUAY: Señor Roberto Tomás Allen, of the Colegio Nacional, Asuncion, is specializing in economics at Drake University.

PERU: Señorita Isabel Viñas, who was prepared in private schools in Lima, is studying English at the College of St. Catherine.

PUERTO RICO: Señor Enrique Martínez, who received his premedical training at the University of Puerto Rico, has entered the medical school of the University of Wisconsin.

Moreover, Teachers College of Columbia University has granted scholarships to M. Oscar Charlemagne Boisgris of Haiti, a graduate of the Central School of Agriculture, Port au Prince, to study rural education and educational statistics; and to Señorita Petra Orlando, a

Puerto Rican nurse, who received her training in the Presbyterian Hospital at San Juan and plans to teach nursing.

Miss Betulia Toro of Columbia, a student at the University of California, holds a foreign student scholarship (covering room rent) at International House.

Señor Mario Rodríguez, of Chile, who received his law degree from the University of Chile, was the recipient of a scholarship from the School of Foreign Service of Georgetown University. Señor Rodríguez is a member of the Chilean diplomatic service, being at the present time Second Secretary of the Embassy in Washington.

The facilities offered to Latin America teachers of the blind by the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind are being utilized this year by Señorita María Luisa Soler, a teacher at the Varona Suárez National Institute for the Blind, Habana.

The Master Institute of Roerich Museum has continued the scholarship in music previously awarded to Señorita Elsa Cabrera, a Chilean pianist. Both Miss Cabrera and her compatriot, Señor Carlos Beltrán, who is attending the R. C. A. Institutes, Inc., have been aided by the Chile-American Association, which takes a deep interest in the welfare of Chilean students in this country.

On considering the fields of work in which these students and scholars are engaged, we find that medicine and public health claim the largest number—13, and education the next largest—12. Science as applied to agriculture or industry comes next in order, with biology enrolling five, and physics, chemistry, and agriculture one each. Three students are specializing in English, presumably in preparation for teaching that language, and one is taking a liberal arts course. Two more are carrying on research in engineering problems and as many in architecture. The fields of literature, history, music, international law, economics, foreign service and industrial organization are engaging the attention of the other holders of fellowships.

It is also of interest to note that of the total of 48 students—a number which should doubtless be increased by others who have not come to the notice of the Pan American Union—35 are men and 13 women.

More and more it is being recognized that the wisest policy in encouraging student interchange is so to use scholarships and fellowships as to attract the best prepared and finest type of foreign scholars. That this policy is being followed as regards Latin America is evident from a survey of this fine group of students, who inspire one with optimism as to the excellent results that will flow from their stay in the United States.

## A GREAT LADY AND A GREAT PHILANTHROPIST: JUANA ALARCO DE DAMMERT<sup>1</sup>

A GREAT lady and a great philanthropist has passed away in Lima, leaving behind her the monument of a very great work.

Born 90 years ago almost at the dawn of the Victorian era; the descendant of an old colonial family; brought up in the traditions of the past, Juana Alarco de Dammert might have fulfilled her destiny by being no more than a grande dame of the old school. Instead, she became the most advanced woman of her age. Possessed of an indomitable will, and endowed with a charm of manner which she knew how to exercise for whatever end she had in view, she carried into execution, in the backward Lima of 40 years ago, a series of charitable works for the welfare of children which were almost in advance of the times. Her task was rendered the more difficult in that she set herself to its accomplishment when the capital was only just recovering from a prolonged period of political unrest and civil warfare. "Fearless, resolute, outspoken," it has been said of her, "she should have been a man." More truly might it be said that she carried out a man's work with the sympathy and tenderness that only a woman could give.

The crowning recognition of Juana Alarco de Dammert's work came in 1922, when a bust was erected to her honor in the Parque Neptuno. The anniversary of the unveiling has been faithfully observed every year since. On December 8 the pupils of the Lima schools and delegations from all the educational institutions of the Republic assemble around the bronze memorial to pay their tribute of homage to the great lady who had done so much to advance the cause of poor children.

In latter years Juana Alarco de Dammert had become almost a tradition in Peru. But it was still an active tradition. To the end of her days she maintained the deepest interest not only in the institutions which she had founded but in everything that concerned the welfare of her fellow men. Preserving her faculties to the last, she gradually faded away and died on August 2, 1932. The funeral took place on August 4, and was attended by a large following, representative of all elements of society. The mass of floral offerings placed at the foot of the bust in the Parque Neptuno was further tribute to the affection and honor in which this great philanthropist was held.

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From "The West Coast Leader," Aug. 16, 1932.

Juana Alarco de Dammert first came into public notice in 1895. In the terrible street fighting of March 17 and 18 following upon the entry of Nicolás de Piérola and his troops into Lima, some 2,000 lives were lost, while the number of wounded was beyond calculation. The hospitals lacked accommodations to attend to one-quarter of the cases. It was at that hour that Señora de Dammert set to work to raise a body of volunteer nurses under the title of the Relief Committee (*Comité de Auxilios*) who, herself at their head, attended to the wounded in the building formerly occupied by the French Fire Brigade in the Portal del Teatro. From this great work

JUANA ALARCO DE  
DAMMERT

The Children's Aid Society of Lima stands as a monument to this Peruvian woman who throughout the greater part of her long lifetime was an indomitable worker in the interest of poor children.



sprang into being the Peruvian Red Cross Society. This was followed two years later by an even greater work. The Civil War left as its aftermath the most abject poverty among the working classes of Lima. The prevailing distress was further aggravated by the terribly insanitary conditions under which the laborers of the capital were housed. Infant mortality stood at an accusingly high figure; and all the great heart of Señora de Dammert was stirred to the depths by the distressing spectacle which every street offered of rickety, undernourished, diseased children with only the streets as a home when the parents were at work.

The outcome was the formation in 1897 of the Children's Aid Society (*Junta de Defensa de la Infancia*) with the crèche, or day nursery, in the Calle Los Naranjos as one of its most important activities. For nearly 30 years Señora de Dammert remained at the head of this great organization which then, as now, could be kept alive only by philanthropy. With advancing years, she yielded place to her daughter, Señorita Luisa Dammert, who is following in the footsteps of her mother with the same tenacity of purpose and the same real interest in the welfare of poor children.

#### HER GREATEST MONUMENT

The day nursery was opened in 1897 in an old colonial building, which it has occupied ever since. From that day to this more than 2,000 children have been entered on its books. But mere figures tell no tale of what the crèche has accomplished. Only a visit to the institution can make really intelligible what the work is and how it is carried out. Perhaps to that should be added a visit to the homes of the children themselves to appreciate the conditions under which they would have had to be brought up, were not this crèche, this real home for the homeless, here to save them. One would also have to see the state in which these children arrive at the crèche in the morning; the same children when they have been bathed and (in the case of babies) reclothed in the garments of the institution; and once again when they leave at night, after a wholesome, happy day, clean, contented, and well fed.

No child is turned away. From the age of three months up to five years they are received without any requirement save the assurance that the mother is not leading a notoriously immoral life. A daily fee is charged: in the case of babies, 5 centavos a day; in the case of older children, 10 centavos. In return for that they are clothed when they come shoeless or in utter rags; their bodies and their linen are washed; their sores and slight sicknesses are tended; and they receive two solid meals a day, in addition to the bottle of milk which is given every baby when the mother calls for it on her return from work.

#### HEALTH AND CLEANLINESS

Facing the entrance in the main courtyard is the consulting room, where every child is examined on admittance and where two physicians are in daily attendance to give such treatment as may be necessary. In too many cases some treatment or other is needed, since the children, almost without exception, come from the poorest homes in Lima. (Though to see the same children, clean, decently clad, well fed, in the precincts of the institution between the hours of 8



and 5, one would scarcely suspect it!) No serious cases of sickness are treated in the crèche itself; for such there is the Juana Alarco de Dammert Ward in the Children's Hospital. But there is always the fiend of chronic malaria to contend with, the chronic malaria which rages everywhere in the slum districts of Lima. There is tuberculosis, which still keeps infant mortality at an unduly high rate. There are skin diseases, some due to the sins of parents, others to undernourishment and neglect. And finally there are the verminiferous.

Even in the case of contagious diseases of the skin, children are not refused admission. They have a department of their own on an upper floor of the building where, kept isolated from the rest, they receive the treatment which their poor, tender, suffering bodies require. For one and all there is the appropriate treatment, with nurses and doctors to apply salves and injections and a wholesome food régime to aid the cure. . . .

#### THE KINDERGARTEN

The kindergarten section of the crèche opens upon an inner patio, bright with shrubs and flowers. But the most beautiful flowers of all are the children themselves. There is no happier, more care-free spot to be found in all Lima than this. Here, children between the ages of 4 and 6 years receive their first lessons in what, from a scholastic point of view, is usually termed "education"—the letters of the alphabet and the numerals. The system followed is that of Froebel combined with that of Montessori. It is all a game, a very delightful game, from the point of view both of pupils and teachers, this education under the guise of play; but the results speak for themselves. They speak, first of all, in the excellent manners of the children, in their natural discipline, in their merriness which never degenerates into rowdiness (as it would in the streets), and secondly in the exhibits of their work which are proudly shown in glass-fronted cases wherein every pupil has the ambition to see some specimen of his or her handiwork displayed for the admiration of visitors. These exhibits range from sketches of fairy tales in colored chalks, models of trees and houses and animals in multi-colored papers, crowns for the Carnival Queen of the school and (not less highly honored) the crown of the Model Child, down to handkerchiefs and table covers, sewn and embroidered by the pupils themselves. Every now and again the children of the kindergarten take some present home to their parents. It usually consists of a handkerchief or a cloth of their very own handiwork. The crowning exhibit of all is a large doll's house, a complete establishment in which every article of furniture, from beds and wardrobes and stoves and chairs and tables down to a Lilliputian desk in which the

drawers actually pull out as smoothly as if they had come from a factory, was made of cardboard by the children themselves. . . .

#### THE STAFF

The management of the crèche is in the hands of Sister Elisa Wieck, who has held the post for the last eight years. Sister Wieck gained her experience in a more strenuous school than that of kindergartens. A native of Baden, after studying at Hamburg, Munich, and Mannheim, where she graduated with a professor's degree, she served during the war with the German Red Cross, at first in Tsing-Tao and later on the French, Russian, and Rumanian fronts. She came to Lima at the conclusion of the war, and to-day is carrying out the greatest work of her life. Sister Wieck has under her a staff of about 30 employees, including nurses and teachers. One and all of the personnel, from the head down to the kitchen staff and the laundry maids (who have as hard a day's work for six full days in the week as any man or woman in Lima), are imbued with the spirit of the institution. They are proud of it and of the work which they are carrying out in the cause of infant welfare—the cause which the foundress, Juana Alarco de Dammert, had so much at heart. . . .



# MEDICAL RESEARCH IN LATIN AMERICA

By A. A. MOLL, Ph. D.

*Scientific Editor, Pan American Sanitary Bureau*

## II. MODERN TIMES \*

AS professional conditions became more or less stabilized in Latin America in the first part of the XIXth century,<sup>32</sup> a period of discipline and trial followed, during which, after going to school in France,<sup>33</sup> a number of outstanding men introduced into their own countries modern medical advances and especially surgical methods.<sup>34</sup> Far-sighted statesmen like Rivadavia offered for this purpose fellowships abroad, and almost from the beginning a wish was stressed to develop native talent.<sup>35</sup> From such a stage of training and groping Latin America was soon to emerge with a most valuable contribution of its own. Arbitrarily, but not illogically, we may begin this new era with Finlay's pioneer work, as it followed quite closely and supplemented Pasteur's discoveries.<sup>36</sup>

*Yellow fever.*—It was at the second of the international health or medical conferences held in the Western Continent, in Washington, in 1881, that the Cuban scientist—incidentally, educated in France and the United States<sup>37</sup>—first enunciated his theory of the rôle of the

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\* Part I of this article, which appeared in the November issue of the BULLETIN, dealt with the beginnings of medical research in Latin America. In Part I, p. 779, sixth line from the bottom, the words "castor oil" should be "cascara sagrada."

<sup>32</sup> The trips of Humboldt, the "Columbus of Science," undoubtedly gave much impetus to all research, including medical subjects.

<sup>33</sup> The whole medical world did likewise in the fruitful years beginning with Laënnec and reaching their climax with Pasteur. Even in the XVIIIth century many of the teachers of anatomy were French or followed French procedure. Bullfinch, the first man from the United States to study medicine in Europe, completed his medical education in Paris in 1721. The four men, Shippen, Morgan, Rush, and Kuhn, who founded the first medical school in the present United States, had all studied in Paris, as did Warren, Holmes, Cushing, and Gerhardt at a later date.

<sup>34</sup> The first stethoscope, brought to Rio by Fernandes Tavares, in 1823, one of the first in the Western Continent, is still on exhibition at the Rio Academy. Surgical operations were everywhere introduced at first with some timidity. Surgical antisepsis became popular in the 80's. In Mexico the first cephalotripsy was performed in 1840 by Vértiz, Jiménez, and Clement; the first Cæsarean section on a live woman, accidentally, by Jiménez, in 1850; the first symphysiotomy, also accidentally, by Tellechea and Ortega, in 1869; the first Porro's operation by Rodríguez, in 1884. In Colombia the first Cæsarean dates from 1860; in Guatemala, from 1864; the first successful one (by Baca), from 1871; the first ovariectomy (by Ponte) in Venezuela, from 1881; the first tracheotomies and tenectomies in Brazil, from 1843; the first hysterectomy, from 1887; in Argentina the first pubiotomy (by Cantón), from 1904; in Brazil (by Rodríguez Lima), from 1905. In 1603, Dávila in Lima had removed from a little girl a stone weighing 1½ ounces.

<sup>35</sup> The Buenos Aires Medical Academy, as early as 1826, placed itself on record against the importation of a few transient notabilities without roots in the soil.

<sup>36</sup> Beaupérthuy had anticipated the new times when he wrote: "Our epoch leans visibly toward preventive medicine and public and private hygiene. The Golden Age of Medicine has not arrived as yet."

<sup>37</sup> One of his teachers at Philadelphia was Dr. J. K. Mitchell, who, as early as 1849, had defended *a priori* the germ theory of disease. A Frenchman, Devèze, at Philadelphia (1793) had been the first to uphold the noncontagiousness of yellow fever.

mosquito in the transmission of yellow fever.<sup>38</sup> Half a century has elapsed, but the three postulates set on record then still remain the basis of our knowledge of the disease and the best proof of the caliber of the man, as modest as capable, who defined them. The history of medicine registers no greater achievement than Finlay's work, so admirably supplemented by that of Reed,<sup>39</sup> Carroll, Lazear, and Agramonte<sup>40</sup> in 1900, and by Guiteras' experiments. For the first time it had been proved that a human disease was transmitted by an insect, and man had been provided with means to eradicate it, thus redeeming some of the wealthiest portions of earth, so far the prey of this scourge.

Let us not forget here that in 1885, only a few years after Finlay's statement, Utinguassú, in the Academy of Medicine of Rio de Janeiro, asserted independently that the mosquito must be the carrier of yellow fever. This is also the proper place to refer to the performance of Ribas (1862-1925) and Cruz in Brazil. Not three months had elapsed since Reed's announcement at the Indianapolis meeting of the American Public Health Association (1901) that at last the cause of yellow fever had been definitely demonstrated when Ribas, then director of the public health service of the State of Sao Paulo (1898-1917), published at Sao Paulo a paper quoting previous epidemiological experiences of his own since 1896 which enabled him to indorse unqualifiedly the new doctrine.<sup>41</sup> As a result of Ribas' excellent work, yellow fever became extinct in Sao Paulo in 1903, even before it was wiped out in Cuba or in Rio. To Ribas we also owe the famous Butantan Institute, where Vital Brasil was to perform his meritorious task; the first arguments supporting the independence of alastrim as a disease; the first child-welfare section in a health department in Brazil and probably in all Latin America; the tuberculosis sanatorium at Campos de

<sup>38</sup> In his momentous and matter-of-fact statement at Washington, Finlay did not actually mention the mosquito, but he did so a few months afterwards, at Habana, in August, 1881. When the American Yellow Fever Commission visited Habana in 1879, Finlay was still feeling his way about, and could only suggest atmospheric alkalinity as a possible cause of yellow fever. The report of the Commission, and especially its destructive data on many theories, must have proved useful. Finlay himself credited his final views to reading in a botanical work of the rôle filled in the rust of wheat by the spores of *Puccinia graminis* which must be carried to another plant to complete their life cycle and acquire their disease-causing power. It is interesting to recall that the Commission included two men who had much to do with Finlay afterwards: Sternberg, who appointed the 1899 Yellow Fever Commission, and Guiteras, Finlay's loyal coworker and successor.

<sup>39</sup> The United States Army Commission, headed by Reed, gave to Finlay's theory, even using his own mosquitoes, the solid experimental basis it had so far lacked. Gorgas was to make it a practical reality by putting it immediately to work in freeing first Habana and then Panama from yellow fever and also malaria. It is interesting to note that Unanue, in the latter part of the XVIIIth century, blamed the prevalence of intermittent fevers on the foul smells from stagnant waters, and recalled that, to safeguard themselves, the Indians used to build their homes on hills.

<sup>40</sup> Agramonte was to close his useful life at New Orleans as professor of tropical medicine at Tulane University, in contrast to his countryman and coworker, Guiteras, who, before going to Cuba, spent some profitable years in a similar capacity at Philadelphia.

<sup>41</sup> It is not so well known that Ribas, with Adolpho Lutz and Oscar Moreira, as well as another group of Brazilian volunteers, allowed themselves, in 1903, to be bitten by mosquitoes which had fed on yellow fever patients, thus confirming anew the Habana achievement. Recent contributions to yellow-fever control must include those of the Brazilian Torres, Aragão, Costa Cruz, and Lemos Monteiro, and the Cuban Hoffmann.

Jordao; and the model Santo Angelo leprosy. What Ribas did at Sao Paulo, Oswaldo Cruz was to accomplish at Rio (ridding the city of yellow fever, creating laboratories, promoting research and developing health organization) on a larger scale, and in a briefer period, as if he knew that his days on earth were numbered.

It may be well to take up now, separately, some special subjects.

*Hookworm disease.*—In Mexico, Lobat first called attention, in 1854, to the presence of hookworm disease, and shortly afterwards Jiménez discussed possible causes and Manuell for the first time found the parasite in a patient.<sup>42</sup> In Brazil Wucherer in 1866 pointed to the

#### FINLAY'S BUST IN HABANA

This bust in the patio of the Department of Public Health and Charity is but one of various tributes rendered by his grateful country to the modest scientist whose epoch-making discovery of the transmission of yellow fever by the mosquito proved a boon to the entire world.



worm as the cause of the *opilação* known in the country since 1748. Durán, equally noted as a statesman and a physician, is supposed to have been the first in Central America (1896) to diagnose the disease, as he also was to do later with beriberi. In Colombia Posada Arango, who also distinguished himself as an astronomer and a naturalist, identified the local *tuntún* as uncinariasis, and in 1887 introduced *higuerón* juice as a remedy whose value was fully proved by his countrymen Robles and Montoya.<sup>43</sup> In 1903 Rangel, then chief of the laboratory of the Vargas Hospital, rose before the Caracas Academy of Medicine, with the modesty of a country boy but with the scientist's assurance, to report that he had found hookworms in autopsies made in cases of

<sup>42</sup> This is almost at the same time that Bilharz and Griesinger brought out the importance of the infestation in Egypt and long before Leidy (1886) mentioned hookworm as a possible cause of anemia.

<sup>43</sup> Calle and Lázaro Uribe used the drug afterwards against whipworms. A Brazilian farmer called Gracio seems to have been the first to use it medically, about 1882.

tropical anemia. In Puerto Rico Ashford was in 1900 to connect dramatically this worm with the anemia which had long exhausted tropical laborers; with him cooperated Gutiérrez Igaravidez and González Martínez in devising methods of control which afterwards found world-wide use.<sup>44</sup> This enterprise, extended by the Rockefeller Foundation to the whole world, represents another landmark in modern public health work, as it offered the means of restoring to a gainful life millions of people up to then helpless and suffering.<sup>45</sup>

*Typhus fever.*—Mexico's contributions to our knowledge of typhus fever are both numerous and distinguished. León, the historian, showed the antiquity of *matlazahuatl* on the land. From 1869 to 1919 at least 175 papers were published on the subject, and the physicians who have fallen victims to the disease may be counted by scores. Miguel Otero spent many years and all his fortune on studies which included human inoculation, and finally lost his life, in 1915, when fighting an epidemic and treating patients. Marín, of Puebla, suggested that bedbugs and fleas might transmit typhus, and Toussaint, in 1906, unsuccessfully tried on himself transmission through fleas, bedbugs, and mosquitoes. Ricketts repeated this work, but went further, demonstrating the rôle of lice, and was engaged in the study of typhus fever when he died from it in 1910, in the old Institute of Hygiene, in Mexico City. In this same city Mooser has recently established in a more definite way the relation between rickettsias and typhus fever, thus extending the work of the Brazilian Rocha Lima in the Butantan Institute and also confirming Neill's report on a new sign of typhus in the guinea pig. Other Mexicans, including Ochoterena, Ruiz Castañeda, and Varela, have done valuable work, and Ruiz Castañeda, with Zinsser, brought forth a preventive vaccine.<sup>46</sup> It seems, therefore, very proper that the basic investigations of Ricketts, as well as those of Anderson and Goldberger, should have been performed in Mexico. The research done in Brazil by Prowazek and Rocha Lima has also added a great deal to our knowledge of the disease and its causative agent. Important work on typhus has recently been done by Lemos Monteiro, Toledo Pizá, and Fialho, in Brazil, in Peru by Weiss and in Chile by Kraus.

*Verruga peruana.*<sup>47</sup>—No more altruistic piece of work is recorded in the history of research than that performed by the medical student, Tomás A. Carrión, when, in an attempt to verify the infectiousness

<sup>44</sup> For Argentina and Brazil, Parodi, in 1920, reported a form of the worm which he called *Necator argentinus*, but which seems a mere variant of the *americanus*.

<sup>45</sup> General Wood once stated that the conquest of yellow fever justified the Spanish-American War. Just as much may be said of the developments in hookworm disease control.

<sup>46</sup> This seems to be an improvement over that of Weigl.

<sup>47</sup> *Verruga peruana* is a disease consisting of acute fever, pernicious anemia, and local tenderness. This disease, limited to certain valleys of the Andes, has also been called locally Oroya fever. The first lay writers to mention *verruca peruana* were Gomara (1553) and Zárate (1555); the first physicians Gago de Vadillo (1630), Bueno (1764), Unanue (1806).

of verruga peruana and disprove the erroneous views of some investigators, he inoculated himself at Lima, on August 27, 1885, with material from a case of the disease which was to be connected with his name. Carrión died, as a result of his experiment, on October 5, 1885, when barely 26 years old, a true scientist to the end, describing step by step the course of his illness. A number of his countrymen were to take up the task and cast new light on the disease. Barton, in 1901, found the causative germ, later to be isolated and grown by Hercelles (1925) and Noguchi. Other Peruvians who worked in this field are Arce, Vélez López, Rebagliati and Gastiaburú, Mackehenie, Odriozola, Weiss, and Battistini. This work still continues and has received the collaboration of Americans from other republics, including Rocha Lima, Strong and Shannon.

*Onchocerciasis*.—Robles, of Guatemala, in 1915, was the first man to call attention to the presence in the coffee sections of his country of a new disease (afterwards also found in certain Mexican districts) caused by a special worm called *Onchocerca caecutiens* from its tendency to cause blindness. Other researchers who have gathered data on the disease are, in Guatemala, Calderón and Muñoz Ochoa; and in Mexico, Ochoterena, Hoffmann, and Dampf. The Harvard Commission, headed by Strong, in Guatemala, has shown that certain sand fleas act as carriers, thus furnishing knowledge useful in controlling a disease whose spread is causing some alarm.

*American leishmaniasis*.—The names of uta, espundia, and bubas have been applied locally to a skin disease already appearing in the old Inca huacos and embracing at least regions of practically every South American country. As early as 1759 Sauvage and Charlouis described cases. More definite information was furnished in Peru by Tamayo in 1890; Avendaño and Flores (who even referred to a bacillus as the cause) in 1892; Barros in 1895; Ugaz and Saméneiz in 1901; and afterwards Tamayo and Palma, who showed the identity of the disease with that shown in pre-Columbian images; and Escomel, Vélez López, and Monge; in Brazil, Cerqueira in 1892, Adeodato in 1895, Moreno in 1896, Breda in 1899, and finally Lindenberg, Carini, and Paranhos, who in 1909 found for the first time in the sores the *Leishmania* organisms and showed the kinship of the condition with oriental sore, and Splendore, who in 1913 presented the mucous types, more serious than the cases limited to the skin. Cases in other countries were reported by Zagárnaga in Bolivia, Sommer, Da Matta, and Mazza in Argentina, Picado in Central America, Connor and Bates in Panama, Flu in Dutch Guiana, Seidelin and Incháustegui in Mexico, Migone in Paraguay, Iturbe and Tejera in Venezuela. All these men have done very important work, separating the condition from other diseases and determining its geographical extension. In Brazil, where the most and the best work has been done, Vianna in

1911 introduced tartar emetic into the treatment. This has proved specific and is also used successfully in the Asiatic and European forms.

*Chagas' disease.*—Chagas discovered among Brazilian children in 1909 a new form of trypanosomiasis characterized by enlargement of the thyroid and the spleen, and transmitted by a local bug, a *Triatoma*. This condition was afterwards found in other South American countries. The causative parasite was named after Cruz; the disease, at the suggestion of the illustrious Couto, after Chagas. It was afterwards reported from other countries, Argentina, Venezuela, Peru, and El Salvador, and lately by the Gorgas Memorial Institute from Panama.<sup>48</sup>

*American blastomycosis.*—For some time several South American skin diseases were grouped together. One of them, already described in Argentina by Del Valle in 1901 and Sommer in 1914, was a condition which in 1914 Escomel reported in Bolivian and Peruvian patients was not caused by leishmanias but by blastomycetes. Hence the name of American blastomycosis was suggested. The disease was then described in Bolivia by Morales; in Venezuela by Iturbe and González; in Colombia and Central America<sup>49</sup> by Peña Chavarría.

*Mycoses.*<sup>50</sup>—With regard to *carate*, *ccara*, and *pinto* (already known by the Aztecs), practically all our basic knowledge was gathered by American authors, and especially Brazilian (de Fonseca, Area Leão), Colombian (Montoya y Flores, Urueta), Mexican (González, Pallares, Ruiz Sandoval, Iturbide, Saucedo, Andrade), Peruvian (Escomel), Ecuadorean (Suárez, Lasso Meneses), and Venezuelan (Medina Jiménez, González). The first to describe *pinto* were Palanco in Mexico (1760) and Velazco in Colombia (1780), while the first thorough study was that of the Frenchman Alibert in 1829. Gastambide seems to have found a fungus in 1881. Cerqueira, in Brazil, was the first to report a black ringworm of the hand. In Argentina, Wernicke first described in 1890 granuloma coccidioides—one of the first diseases known to be exclusively American—and his pupil, Posadas, amplified our data. Piedra has been studied in Brazil by Horta, who differentiated the Brazilian from the Colombian variety and had the causative organism named after him; Rabello, Parreiras Horta, Fonseca, and Area Leão; in Argentina by Oriol Arias and Parodi, and in Paraguay by Delamare and Gatti.

*Snake poisoning.*—Lacerda, a pioneer in biology, began in Brazil the study of poisonous snakes with that of other animal and plant poisons. In 1902 Vital Brazil, deeply impressed on his return from France to his country by the thousands of deaths caused each year by

<sup>48</sup> The germ has also been found in Honduras by Robertson and in Chile by Sassa Mazzi.

<sup>49</sup> Weiss seems to consider at least some of these cases as secondary infections to leishmaniasis.

<sup>50</sup> In medical parlance, mycoses are diseases caused by fungi or yeasts.



# THE FAMOUS SERPENTARIUM AT SÃO PAULO

Such men as Brazil and Kraus now have a worthy successor in Amaral at the Butantan Institute where antivenom serum is prepared.



snake bites, organized the Butantan Institute at Sao Paulo, where, among other sera, antivenom serum is manufactured.<sup>51</sup> His successors and pupils, Gomes and especially Amaral, while continuing the serum production, have systematized the classification of snakes, and Amaral was invited for a similar purpose in recent years to the United States. The subject has also been studied in Colombia by Carral and García; in Mexico by Cuesta Terrón; in Costa Rica by Alfaro and especially Picado, through whose efforts deaths from snake poisoning have decreased enormously in that country. The physicians of the United Fruit Co. have lately been contributing to the subject. Useful analyses of the poison have been made by Veillard and Assumpção in Brazil; Houssay and Sordelli in Argentina. Scorpion bites and their prevention have been investigated by Magalhães and Carvalho in Brazil, and Córdova y Gurría, Hoffman, and Cuesta y Terrón in Mexico, and spider bites by Puga Borne and Tirado in

<sup>51</sup> Vital Brazil has lately continued his good work in his present post at Nicteroy.

Chile, and Escomel in Peru. Hoffman and Embil have investigated *barracuda* (a fish) poisoning in Cuba.

*Basal metabolism.*—Ozorio de Almeida pointed out in Brazil that among tropical dwellers basal metabolism rates were lower than among people in the temperate zones. In Cuba Montoro corroborated the assertion, later disputed by Coro.

*History.*—Among those cultivating with brilliance the field of medical historiography and entitled to a great deal of praise for the light they have thrown on their countries, special mention must be made of Cantón, in Argentina, and Flores, in Mexico, and their voluminous treatises; of the unfortunately incomplete works of Lautaro Ferrer, in Chile, and Schiaffino, in Uruguay; and of the more partial studies of such men as Túmburus, in Argentina; Abecia, in Bolivia; Barboza, Da Fonseca, Nascimento, and Freitas, in Brazil; Finlay and LeRoy, in Cuba; Moore, in Chile; Heinert, Lasso Meneses, Arcos, Chávez Franco, in Ecuador; Asturias and Ortega, in Guatemala; Valdizán, Paz Soldán, and Delgado, in Peru; the learned León, in Mexico; Parsons, in Haiti; and Marcano, Razetti, Rodríguez Rivero, and Sanabria Bruzual, in Venezuela. Their scholarly works constitute the source to which all interested in this subject must always gratefully turn for guidance in a troublesome, if most attractive, field.

*Congresses.*—Congresses, through the exchange of views and teaching by leaders, have always furnished a needed stimulus to research. Strangely enough, in Latin America international meetings appear to have preceded national medical assemblies, sanitary conferences being among the very first of the former. Uruguay deserves credit for having called an International Sanitary Congress, held at Montevideo in 1873.<sup>52</sup> This, the first of all American sanitary conferences, was followed by those at Washington in 1881, Rio in 1887, Lima in 1888, and, eventually, by the Pan American Sanitary Conferences inaugurated in 1902. The 1881 Washington Conference, while international and not purely American, stands out from the standpoint of research because of Finlay's appearance there.<sup>53</sup>

*Academies.*—The earliest of Latin American medical academies were undoubtedly those existing in Mexico, under various names, in 1732–1734; 1775–1817; 1824–1827; 1830–1833, and 1836–1842, even before the Academy of Medicine of Paris was created in 1820 (to replace the extinct Society of Medicine and Academy of Surgery). In Buenos Aires, Gorman planned to organize an Academy in 1783,

<sup>52</sup> Argentina and Brazil, as well as Uruguay, sent representatives who approved the draft of an international sanitary convention, the first of its kind in America.

<sup>53</sup> The Washington Conference also recommended, for the first time, the creation of two bureaus, one at Habana, for the international reporting of sanitary conditions. Space does not permit the insertion here of a complete list of the many Pan American and Latin American congresses of medical nature held since then.

but nothing came of it until 1822, and then it lasted only until 1824. In Rio, a Scientific Academy, including medicine in its scope, lasted from 1771 to 1779. The Montevideo Medical Society was organized in 1850; in the United States, the first medical society was organized in 1735; the New York Academy of Medicine in 1847.

The present academies were founded as follows: Rio de Janeiro, 1829; Habana, 1861; Mexico, 1864; Buenos Aires, 1874, after previous attempts in 1852 and 1856; Lima, 1876; Bogota, 1890 (succeeding the Sociedad de Medicina y Ciencias Naturales, organized in 1873); Caracas, 1904.

*Medical journals.*—The publication of medical journals in America began with the *Mercurio Volante* (1772–73), edited by Bartolache, in Mexico. Articles on medicine had long before appeared in such lay journals as the *Gaceta de México* (1722–1742), and, later, *El Mercurio* (1740–1742), *Gaceta de México* (1784–1789), and *Diario de México* (1805–1812). Another journal, *Higía*, was published in Mexico City, in 1833, by Leger and Villette. A periodical was published by the National Academy of Medicine (1836–1843). Of present medical journals the oldest is the *Gaceta Médica de México*, also founded by the Academy, in 1864. In other countries medical journals represented a much later development. In Brazil the *Patriota* carried medical papers as early as 1813–1817, *Folha Medicinal* appeared at Maranhão in 1822, while the public-spirited Sigaud published the *Propagador das Sciencias Medicas* from 1827 to 1831, and, at his suggestion, the Medical Academy of Rio issued a *Semanario de Saude Publica* from 1830 to 1833, reissued under the name *Revista Medica Fluminense* from 1835 to 1861; *Revista Medica Brasileira*, 1841–1843; *Annaes de Medicina Brasiliense*, 1845–1849; *Annaes Brasilienses de Medicina*, 1849–1885; *Annaes da Academia Imperial (Nacional, later) de Medicina do Rio de Janeiro*, from 1885 onward. The present *Gaceta Medica da Bahia* dates from 1866. In Cuba the *Repertorio Médico Habanero* appeared in 1840 and the present *Crónica Médico-Quirúrgica* in 1875; in Chile the *Criticón Médico* in 1840 and the present *Revista Médica de Chile* in 1872; in Colombia, *La Gaceta* in 1852, *La Gaceta Médica de Colombia* in 1865–1868, *Revista Médica de Bogotá* in 1873, and the present *Repertorio de Medicina y Cirugía* from 1909; in Argentina, the *Anales de la Academia Nacional de Medicina* in 1823,<sup>54</sup> the *Revista de Farmacia* in 1855, the *Revista Médico-Quirúrgica* in 1888, *Anales del Departamento Nacional de Higiene* from 1892, and the present *Revista Farmacéutica* in 1860, *Anales del Círculo Médico Argentino* in 1877, and *Semana Médica* in 1894; in Venezuela, *Vargasia* in 1868 and the present *Gaceta Médica de Caracas* from 1893; in Puerto Rico, *Eco Médico Farmacéutico* in 1881 and the present *Boletín de la*

<sup>54</sup> Two of the papers in the first issue deal with the two recently isolated alkaloids of cinchona and on the use of iodine in bronchocele and scrofula.

*Asociación Médica de Puerto Rico* from 1912; in Guatemala, the *Gaceta de los Hospitales* in 1884 and *Gaceta Médica Quezalteca* in 1891;<sup>55</sup> in Peru, *Gaceta Médica de Lima* in 1857; and the present *Crónica Médica* since 1884 (Unanue had written in the *Mercurio Peruano* since 1791, but mostly on nonmedical subjects); in Uruguay, the *Revista Médica del Uruguay* in 1898 and the present *Anales de la Facultad de Medicina de Montevideo* since 1916; (in the United States, the first medical journal dates from 1790, although medical papers had been published in lay journals before); in Costa Rica, *Gaceta Médica de Costa Rica* in 1896; in Santo Domingo, *Revista Médica* in 1905 (ceased publication in 1907); in Nicaragua, *Gaceta Médica de Nicaragua* in 1918; in El Salvador, *La Unión Médica* in 1903 (ceased); in Honduras, *Revista Médico Quirúrgica* from 1919 to 1921; in Haiti, *La Lanterne Médicale* in 1899 and the present *Journal Médical Haïtien* in 1920.<sup>56</sup>

*Pasteur Institutes.*—Priority for the first Pasteur Institute in Latin America seems in doubt between those founded in Buenos Aires by Doctor Dawel and in Montevideo by Suvilla Guaz, both in 1886.<sup>57</sup> Santos Fernández soon (1887) followed their example in Habana, and shortly afterwards institutes were started in Mexico and Rio (1888), Caracas and Chile (1896), Recife (1899), and Montevideo (1908).

*Bacteriological Institutes.*—The first hygienic laboratory in Latin America was, in all probability, the one organized at Rio in 1883.<sup>58</sup> Buenos Aires and Montevideo again tie for honors, as both have had bacteriological institutes since 1886 (founded by Ramos Mejía and the great botanist, Arechavaleta, respectively), and Habana comes immediately afterwards, in 1887.<sup>59</sup> Chile followed in 1892, Mexico and Montevideo in 1895, Sucre in 1896, and Brazil with Maguinhos (actually opened in 1900) and Butantan in 1899. In other places laboratories were created as follows: Asuncion and San Juan,<sup>60</sup> in 1900; Habana, 1902; San José and Lima,<sup>61</sup> 1903; Haiti (Audain's), 1905; Santo Domingo, 1908; Guayaquil and Caracas,<sup>62</sup> 1910; La

<sup>55</sup> *La Gazeta* had published articles by Esparragosa in the XVIIIth century.

<sup>56</sup> Medical journals in Latin America now number close to 200.

<sup>57</sup> The New York Pasteur Institute was only opened in 1890.

<sup>58</sup> In the United States the first municipal laboratory was organized in 1888, in Providence; the first real public health laboratory in New York, by Biggs in 1892. Private laboratories had, of course, existed before these dates, both in the United States and Latin America. In Brazil, Lacerda (who worked at first with Couty, a French professor of biology) and Marques de Araujo Gôes introduced bacteriology.

<sup>59</sup> This was a laboratory organized by Santos Fernández under Tamayo's direction.

<sup>60</sup> In Puerto Rico a chemical laboratory had been organized in 1841. The first microscope was brought to the island in 1890. Ashford established, in 1899, at Ponce a small laboratory where he conducted his momentous investigations of hookworm disease. The first official public health laboratory on the island dates from 1909.

<sup>61</sup> The municipal laboratory had been created at an earlier date. Flórez had started bacteriological courses at the medical school previously to 1890.

<sup>62</sup> In Caracas a chair of bacteriology was created in 1891, probably the first on the Western Continent, the same year the Vargas Hospital was opened under J. G. Hernández. The Vargas Hospital laboratory, where Rangel worked, was, of course, older.

Paz, 1914; Nicaragua, 1915; El Salvador, 1916; Honduras (with Rockefeller's aid) and Bogota,<sup>63</sup> 1923; Guatemala, 1928.<sup>64</sup> At Montevideo there has been an Institute of Experimental Hygiene since 1896, first directed by Sanarelli, and combined with the Municipal Bacteriological Laboratory from 1897 to 1905. Physiological laboratories had been in existence in Buenos Aires since 1884 and in Montevideo since 1891. In Mexico a National Medical Institute for the study of medical conditions and medicinal plants and animal substances was founded in 1888 and definitely organized in 1890. Lavista, the noted



THE BACTERIOLOGICAL INSTITUTE AT BUENOS AIRES

Organized in 1886, this institute now ranks second to none in the world.

surgeon, created in 1896 in Mexico a Museum of Pathology, which developed into a Pathological Institute in 1901, and, under the supervision first of Carmona y Valle and then of Toussaint, studied the pathology and bacteriology of typhus fever. A bacteriological laboratory was provided by the sanitary code of 1891. From these humble beginnings to the present up-to-date institutes the road proved shorter than it may seem at first sight.

The present national bacteriological institute of Buenos Aires, with its many divisions and well-trained personnel, has a notable history,

<sup>63</sup> Under Reyes' administration (1905-1908) there had already been organized a laboratory for the diagnosis of leprosy. The true founder of bacteriology in Colombia was the veterinarian, Lleras Acosta, who, in 1907, began the manufacture of anthrax vaccine.

<sup>64</sup> A national vaccine institute had existed at El Salvador and also at Guatemala since 1907.

owing its inception and development to such sanitarians as Malbrán and Penna. It is at present headed by an excellent bacteriologist, Dr. A. F. Sordelli, after whom a germ has been named. His predecessor, Prof. R. Kraus, has the unusual distinction of having served effectively in a similar capacity three Latin American Republics: Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. Another Buenos Aires institution doing high-class work is the Cancer Institute, directed since its beginning (1922) by the internationally known cancerologist, Prof. Angel Roffo, whose name is borne by one of the most used tests for tumors.

The Instituto Médico Sucre in Bolivia was created in 1896 by a group of high-minded physicians to commemorate the centennial of the Bayard of South American independence. The National Institute of Bacteriology at La Paz was created in 1911. This laboratory has performed valuable work both in diagnosis and in manufacture of biological products. Its first director, Morales Villazón, has prepared important contributions on local diseases and contributed to the refutation of the theory that llamas suffered from syphilis. The present director is Dr. F. Veintemilla.

The Oswaldo Cruz Institute originated in 1899 and was turned over to the Federal Government in 1900, at first with the idea of manufacturing antiplague serum. Its continued development, first under Oswaldo Cruz (1872-1917) and then under Cruz's faithful and brilliant collaborator, Chagas, has made it not only an establishment for the preparation of all common vaccines and serums, but also a research and teaching center for the study of diseases of men and animals. In addition to developing native investigators, it has attracted outstanding foreigners, such as von Prowazek and Lutz. The Institute is located near Rio in an old plantation called Manguinhos, and thence its old name, changed into its present one (1909) after the famous campaign which, under Cruz's direction, banished yellow fever from Rio. The buildings include various pavilions: Laboratory, stables, bleeding room, aquariums, breeding rooms for animals. A cancer institute, donated by the Gaffrée-Guinle Institute, will soon be added. Branches of the Institute have been organized in important Brazilian cities. The Butantan Institute at Sao Paulo, founded by Ribas to manufacture antiplague serum in 1899, under Vital Brazil soon developed into a model laboratory, one of the earliest and largest, for the production of anti-snake-venom serum, with a world-wide reputation. This important work has been continued and extended under the present director, Doctor Amaral, and capable assistants, including Veillard, Assis, Assumpção, and Gomes. At the Instituto de Hygiene de Sao Paulo, housed in new buildings provided by the Rockefeller Foundation and headed by a proved investigator, Paula Souza, good work has been done, among others by Borges Vieira, Fleury de Silveira, and Pessoa on communicable diseases.

Cádiz was the true founder of microbiology in Chile, and under him the newly created laboratory was the first (1898) in South America to manufacture biological products. The present bacteriological research institute in Chile developed comparatively late. Its growth in inauspicious times, under the wise direction of its late chief, Doctor Kraus, is a pleasant omen, and valuable original papers have already been published in its journal.

The National Institute of Hygiene at Bogota, founded by Samper Martínez, enjoys a well-deserved name, and was to develop further under the direction of Peña Chavarría, who has made important



THE MEXICAN INSTITUTE OF HYGIENE

This group of buildings in the outskirts of Mexico City was erected about five years ago to provide adequate quarters for the institute's varied activities.

studies on diphtheria, typhoid, yellow fever, and tropical diseases as a whole.

The present Mexican Institute of Hygiene had its origin in 1921, when Gaviño Iglesias divorced the bacteriological section (created in 1895) from the Pathological Institute. Its new buildings, started in 1925, were finished in 1927 with the contributions of the employees of the National Department of Health. The Institute has divisions of biological products, chemistry, pathology, physiology, parasitology, veterinary science, a serpentarium, museum of bacteriology, etc. In addition, scientific work of a very technical nature is performed. Its present director is a noted laboratory man, Dr. Eliseo Ramírez, and among its personnel are prominent scientists. The Biological Insti-

tute, headed by Ochoterena, has achieved important studies on onchocerciasis, vitamins, scorpions, intestinal worms.

A Frenchman, at least by adoption, Elmassian, was engaged in 1900 to found and organize the National Institute of Parasitology in Asuncion. He is the father of the modern bacteriological school of Paraguay. His successor was Doctor Migone. The present director is Doctor Urizar, who has done meritorious work on *mal de caderas*.

It may be well to insert here a bird's eye view of some signal achievements:

In Argentina, early in the nineteenth century, Muñiz, who delved into so many things, studied anthrax.<sup>65</sup> His name, equally with those of other pioneers, including Argerich, Rawson, Penna, Piñero, Durand, and Pardo, is justly perpetuated in present hospitals, as are in Montevideo those of Vilardebó,<sup>66</sup> Pereira Rosell, etc. Ayerza gave his name to a heart disease on which his followers, Arrillaga and Escudero, shed further light. The very wealth of Argentine medicine prevents its receiving here the meed of attention it so richly deserves.

In Brazil the scientific study of tropical medicine was initiated at Bahia by the triumvirate of Wucherer, Paterson, and Silva Lima (first to describe ainhum in 1867). Couto's<sup>67</sup> strong personality has radiated its influence to many fields. During his connection with the Oswaldo Cruz Institute, Neiva studied blood-sucking insects, demonstrated the independence of Vianna's *Leishmania brasiliensis*, identified Chagas' disease with the uta of the pre-Columbian Peruvian *huacos*, and pointed out its possible transmission by sand flies. Neiva also made a name for himself as a public health pioneer while State director of health at Sao Paulo, where he began the hookworm campaign, started the construction of a modern leprosarium, prepared a sanitary code, and later organized the remarkable Biological Institute devoted to the study of diseases of animals and plants, the Oswaldo Cruz Garden at Butantan for growing medicinal plants, including chenopodium, and the Official Drug Laboratory. The accomplishments of the Brazilian school must include Aragão's and Vianna's growing of Donovan's bodies in venereal granuloma and naming them, as well as finding a successful treatment for the condition; the introduction by Vianna of antimony tartrate injections in kala-azar; and the founding of the model institute of tropical medicine at Sao Paulo. Another Brazilian, Botelho, introduced one of the

<sup>65</sup> In Argentina there are references to anthrax as far back as 1590 and 1609. A commission to study the disease was appointed in 1884. Wernicke was the first to isolate and grow the bacillus in South America. Preventive vaccination was introduced in 1887.

<sup>66</sup> Vilardebó, a Frenchman, in addition to medicine, also delved in anthropology and died combating a yellow-fever epidemic. His countryman, Moussy, the founder of the meteorological observatory, left monographs on geography and history.

<sup>67</sup> Couto has been reelected year after year to the presidency of the National Academy of Medicine, and only recently was exempted from superannuation as a professor in the medical school.



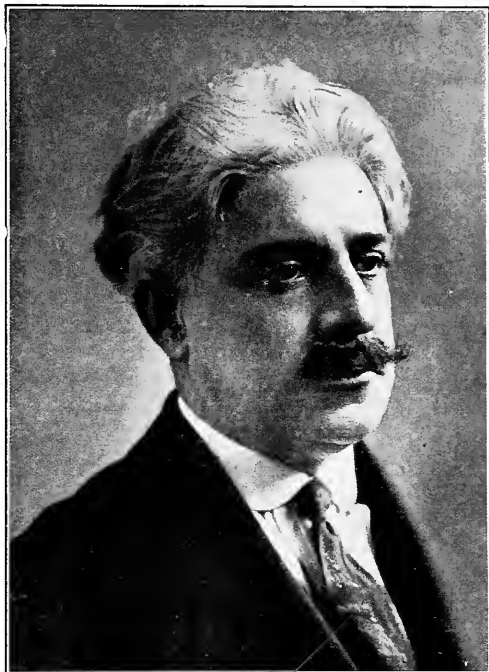
most used tests for cancer in the Pasteur Institute at Paris. Fontes' far-reaching work on the filtrability of the tubercle bacillus as far back as 1909 has caused him to be lately urged for a Nobel prize. Along similar lines Monckeberg has demonstrated in Chile the transmittal of tuberculosis from the mother to the fetus.

Even in colonial times Guatemala had exceptional figures. Flores, in the eighteenth century, taking all science as his province, wrote the first medical book published in Central America, designed a passenger balloon, built wax models to teach internal medicine and physiology, urged inoculation against smallpox, devised a new type of glasses, pioneered in animal electricity, traveled to and lectured in Europe, where his remedy for leprosy and cancer of the skin was tried, and corresponded with scientists abroad. Esparragosa, his best pupil, invented a forceps, first operated for cataracts (1797) in his country, introduced smallpox virus in 1804, and wrote no fewer than 60 books, all lost. Luna, about the middle of the century, introduced ether and lithotripsy.

In Cuba Santos Fernández devoted his long and useful life to journalism and ophthalmological and public health progress. Finlay left behind a school which brought new laurels to his

country, as perhaps best exemplified by Guiteras<sup>68</sup> and Lebrede. The noble hearted Tamayo introduced bacteriology and presided over the clinical study society which fathered the medical congresses. Albarrán and his pupil Lloria in Paris proved international pioneers in urology. The recently created Finlay and cancer institutes have strengthened research facilities.

After an auspicious beginning in colonial times, dark days followed in Haiti, and research, as well as medicine, got a new start in that



OSWALDO GONÇALVES CRUZ

Cruz was a hero of peace who eradicated yellow fever in Rio de Janeiro and gave new impulse in Brazil to public health work.

<sup>68</sup> Guiteras published for six years (beginning in 1900) the first journal of tropical medicine in the New World, and the second in the world.

Republic with Dehoux and Audain only in the second half of the XIXth century. Audain, who died in 1930, proved indefatigable in his efforts to stimulate medical progress in his native island. It was he who founded the first of modern Haitian medical journals, *La Lanterne Médicale* (1899-1911), organized the first bacteriological and parasitological laboratory in 1905, collected and identified mosquitoes, and recognized in 1906 the presence of beriberi. Next to the contributions of such Americans as Butler, Wilson and Mathis (yaws), Mann and Wickersham (edema), we must place those of Choisser on causes of death. The laboratories created under American auspices in 1919, and the reorganization of the Port au Prince medical school with the aid of the Rockefeller Foundation in 1926, augur well for the progress of research in the West Indies.

In Mexico, Carpio, an artist as well as an encyclopedist and a philanthropist, used his pen effectively to ridicule medical follies;<sup>69</sup> Olvera about 1846 anticipated some of Crile's work on the electron theory of life; Liceaga devoted himself unselfishly to reorganizing and almost starting the medical school; the great clinician Jiménez (1813-1876) popularized and even improved percussion and auscultation, in 1845 differentiated typhoid fever and tabardillo, and in 1856 introduced thoracic puncture for liver abscesses. Gama, of San Luis Potosi, was a pioneer in performing surgical drainage before the French Chassaignac; Vértiz improved the method and introduced Lister's antisepsis, while Lobato in 1867 stumbled accidentally on asepsis and used it during the last days of the war against Maximilian. Montes de Oca devised a number of novel operative procedures, and his method for amputation of the leg is still followed. Lucio in 1852 divided leprosy into three forms, one of which he described before European writers.<sup>70</sup> Lavista boldly introduced new operations such as ovariectomy, and Toussaint was a pioneer in gall-bladder surgery and clinical advance. Carmona y Valle in 1880 defined the symptoms of stenosis of the tricuspid valve, and, a pioneer bacteriologist, was among the first to describe a germ (*Peronospora litea*) in yellow fever, and practically initiated ophthalmology.<sup>71</sup> In 1884 the Department of Fomento made a national survey of climatic conditions and geo-

<sup>69</sup> Carpio, whose name appears in all Mexican anthologies, only began to write poetry when over 40 years old.

<sup>70</sup> Cortés is supposed to have built a hospital for lepers as early as 1540. The first authentic leprosy institute in Mexico dates, however, from 1582.

<sup>71</sup> The first ophthalmoscope had been brought to the country by Iglesias in 1856. Carron du Villards, a French surgeon from Piedmont, was the true introducer of ophthalmology in Mexico as well as in most of Latin America. Carron du Villards, one of the most dashing characters in medical history, always professed the greatest devotion to Bolívar, who had once engaged him to head the medical corps in his army and serve afterwards as professor of operative surgery at Bogota. While at Caracas, Carron du Villards, who styled himself General, not only operated successfully for cataract and squint, but removed a patient's tongue for cancer, performed lithotomies, lithotripsy, herniotomies. He also introduced chloroform narcosis in Venezuela, but suffered the misfortune of having one of his patients die suddenly as a result of the anesthesia.

graphic distribution of plants, and the data were placed in 1888 for analysis in the hands of Orvañano, who published the result in 1889. Iglesias tried in vain in 1868 to introduce animal smallpox vaccine, but his nephew, Gaviño Iglesias,<sup>72</sup> succeeded in this enterprise in 1918. Terrés gave much impulse to medical research with the organization of the Society of Internal Medicine (1895–1911) and its organ, the *Revista de Medicina Interna*, to discuss original observations. Herrera's<sup>73</sup> and Vergara López' ambitious work (in French) on life in high plateaus was awarded in 1895 the Hodgkins prize by the Smithsonian Institution.

Revered names in the medical annals of Peru are those of Bambarén, who studied the physiology of the cardiac valves; Alpaca, who invented a forceps preceding that of Tarnier; and Valdivia, who insisted on the humanitarian care of the insane. During the early part of the nineteenth century, Bravo was the first to describe scientifically veruga peruana. When the pathogenicity of some *Ciliata* parasites was still under discussion in Europe, Escomel in 1904 had already determined the point at Arequipa. Escomel was in all justice made the subject of an international homage in 1927.

In colonial times the most prominent scientist in Puerto Rico was Stahl, who wrote on Indian medicine, West Indian plants, fecundity, performed the first ovariectomy in the island (1890), and organized a museum of natural history. Puerto Rico's geographical and political position has permitted it to fill a special rôle in fusing Saxon and Latin methods and applying them to the solution of tropical problems. The epoch-making studies of hookworm disease were carried out under such auspices. The former Institute and the present School of Tropical Medicine of San Juan have perpetuated this system with fruitful results.

Soca, the glory of the Uruguayan school, an authority on ataxia, heart disease, and pediatrics, also won fame in public life, oratory, and medical teaching, being the first South American to be made an associate member of the Paris Academy of Medicine.<sup>74</sup> Ricaldoni, in neurology, and Morquio, in pediatrics, represent other summits of Uruguayan medicine.

In Venezuela, Beaupterthuy must really be considered among the first physicians, if not the very first, to refer to parasites in connection with the cause of specific diseases. The great naturalist Ernst

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<sup>72</sup> Gaviño Iglesias was the man who, by separating the bacteriological division from the Pathological Institute, created the present flourishing Institute of Hygiene in Mexico.

<sup>73</sup> Herrera, who later became the head of the biological institute, introduced the new nomenclature for plants and animals, and has also gained distinction by his pharmacopœial work and researches into plasmogeny.

<sup>74</sup> Soca used to say that when his patients should miss his visits it would be because he would be lying in his grave. He lived up to this motto, attending to his practice and classes until the day before his death. Conscious to the end, from his sick bed he kept on calling out each symptom as it developed and directing his treatment.

(1832-1899) published (1877-1884) a series of valuable papers on Venezuelan fauna and flora. In 1883 Toribio González reported amebic dysentery for the first time in the New World. Modern scientific medicine saw its beginnings under the brilliant Razetti, whose *Gaceta Médica de Caracas* gave new impulse to the revival. Rísquez in 1893 described a rapid method for the diagnosis of malaria, searching the black pigment in the blood. Mosquera, first to report undulant fever in Venezuela, with Rísquez, in 1895, pointed out the presence in Caracas of fevers which did not quite conform to the classic typhoid picture, thus assuming priority in the discovery of



NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF HYGIENE, SANTIAGO, CHILE

To this laboratory is due the honor of initiating the preparation of biological products in South America

paratyphoid infections. Dominicci became the true father of bacteriology in the nineties, when he organized one of the first Pasteur Institutes in all America.

No longer does the witticism of a French physician hold true to the effect that Latin Americans excel in consumption but lag in production. Pages could be used to enumerate that formidable legion of surgeons,<sup>75</sup> clinicians, specialists, and bacteriologists who have placed so high the name of their respective countries.

<sup>75</sup> No less an authority than Dr. W. J. Mayo has emphatically stated that Argentine surgeons compare favorably with those of any other country in the world. "Do you mean to say that all the surgeons of South America are of this high grade?" "I can only answer that all the work I saw was high grade, but I saw only the best men, and not, by any means, all the best men."

*Pan American cooperation.*—A remarkable feature of medical research in America has been, especially of late, its decidedly Pan American character in many instances. Proof is thus brought once more of the only too well recognized fact that science takes no account of frontiers. Vargas practiced in Puerto Rico; Esparragosa, of Guatemala, and Herrera Vegas, of Argentina, were born in Venezuela; Fermín Ferreira, of Uruguay, and Bambarén of Ecuador, in Peru; Guiteras and González Echeverría<sup>76</sup> spent a large part of their lives in the United States; Peña Chavarría has headed laboratories both in Costa Rica and Colombia. In the yellow fever epoch-making achievement, Cuba, as well as the United States, Brazil, and other countries, participated. Hookworm disease is a similar case to the point, and just as much may be said regarding mycoses, American leishmaniasis, verruga peruana, snake-poisoning control, etc. The altruistic activities of the Rockefeller Foundation have made available to the other countries the lessons learned elsewhere and given new impetus to scientific medicine and the establishment of laboratories. The medical work of the United Fruit Co., embracing several tropical countries, has also served a like purpose, and the conference on tropical problems held under its auspices in 1924 constituted a real scientific and Pan American achievement. The remarkable studies of diphtheria at Rio in 1927 by Doull, Ferreira, and Parreiras, and Ruiz Castañeda's and Zinsser's on typhus fever offer recent instances of this medical Pan Americanism.<sup>77</sup> Neiva, of the Oswaldo Cruz Institute, is another shining example, as he organized the medical zoology and parasitology section of the Buenos Aires Bacteriological Institute, and while in Argentina discovered the presence of Chagas' disease and typhus fever. The Spanish edition of the *Journal of the American Medical Association* and the *Boletín de la Oficina Sanitaria Panamericana* have also contributed effectively to the same cause. The Pan American Sanitary Bureau has helped in addition through the conferences organized under its auspices and recently through the studies of plague on the Pacific coast of South America.

A good example of this Pan American spirit is the Gorgas Memorial Institute, formally opened at Panama in 1929 to investigate tropical diseases. The present buildings of the Institute were donated by the Republic of Panama, and the United States contributes annually to the support of this enterprise. The other American Republics have also been invited to join in honoring the memory of the great sanitarian who, after freeing both Habana and Panama from yellow

<sup>76</sup> González Echeverría was director of a State insane asylum in New York and professor of mental diseases in New York University.

<sup>77</sup> This internationalization has been generously extended to European investigators, as shown by the invitations to Kraus; in Brazil, to Wucherer, Prowazek, Lutz; in Argentina, to Nocard, Lignieres, del Río Horteiga; in Uruguay, to Sanarelli; in Guatemala, to Raynal; in Cuba, to Hoffmann; in Mexico, to Hoffmann and Dampf.

fever, set the total eradication of the disease as a goal for the civilized world. Under its present director, Dr. H. C. Clark, the Institute has done already, pending definite organization, fine work on malaria, and has to its credit the discovery in 1930 of the first cases of Chagas' disease above Venezuela and Colombia. The International American Institute for the Protection of Childhood of Montevideo constitutes another instance to the point.

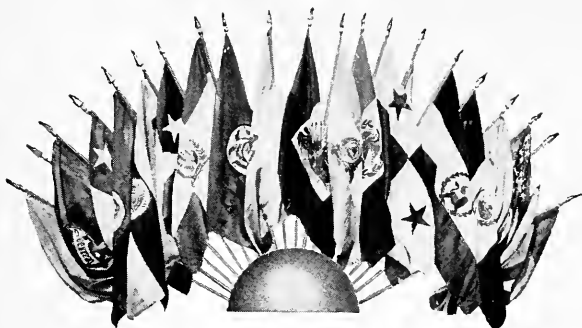
It is a most regrettable but unavoidable penalty befalling any brief sketch, such as the present, that important names must be omitted and deserving deeds passed over.<sup>78</sup> Let all those thus perforce but most reluctantly neglected recall Goethe's pregnant phrase that only mankind combined is the true man and that the individual can only be joyous and happy when he has the courage to feel himself the whole. In focusing the beams from so many scattered constellations, even most luminous stars may find their radiance crowded out. The homage here given the few is really intended for all. Let then these lines be considered a tribute not to certain persons or specified accomplishments but to that great body of noble men who in the remotest corners of Latin America, from Columbus' day to ours, under all kinds of difficulties and trials, regardless of the cost to themselves, with no hope of glory or idea of profit,<sup>79</sup> have devoted their every day and best effort to helping their fellow creatures, to relieving suffering, to making life happier and healthier, facing sickness and death in their holy calling. To them the highest honor, to them all fealty and reverence!

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<sup>78</sup> Flores' two volumes on Mexican and Canton's six on Argentine medicine bear witness to the magnitude of the field.

<sup>79</sup> De-Simoni, the first secretary of the Rio Academy of Medicine, in reviewing the founders of the Academy, referred to their leaving their families penniless. Similar statements close even now the biographies of prominent Latin American physicians.





## PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

### THE GOVERNING BOARD

*New members.*—The Governing Board held its first meeting of the year 1932-33 on November 2 last, His Excellency the Minister of Uruguay, Dr. Jacobo Varela, vice chairman, opening the session in the absence of the chairman, Hon. Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of State. The vice chairman welcomed two new members of the Board: His Excellency the Minister of Bolivia, Dr. Enrique Finot, and the Chargé d'Affaires of Costa Rica, Señor Manuel González Zeledón.

*Election of officers.*—The Hon. Henry L. Stimson was reelected chairman of the Board, and His Excellency the Minister of Guatemala, Dr. Adrián Recinos, was chosen vice chairman. A vote of thanks was given the retiring vice chairman for his efficient service.

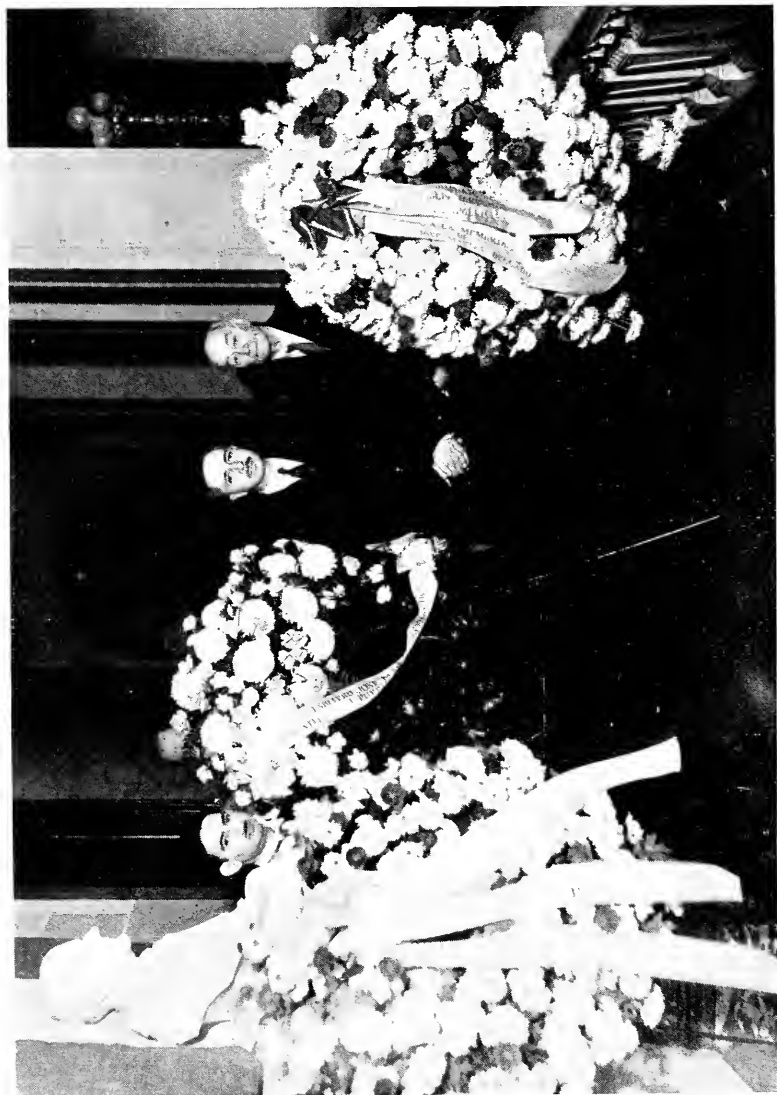
*Member of Pan American Railway Committee.*—Señor Jorge Triana, a distinguished Colombian engineer, was elected a member of the Pan American Railway Committee. The other members of this committee are: Señores Juan Briano, of Argentina, Chairman; Santiago Marín Vicuña, of Chile; Estanisláo Bousquet, of Brazil; Manuel D. Almenara of Peru; and Verne L. Havens, of the United States.

*Tribute to José Matías Delgado.*—The vice chairman of the Board, Doctor Recinos, offered a resolution in honor of the Salvadorean patriot Delgado in the following words:

It has been a laudable custom on the part of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union to pay homage to the great names of the New World on those occasions marked in history as of special importance. The 12th of the present month of November will be the centenary of the death of Dr. José Matías Delgado, the most illustrious precursor of the independence of the Provinces of Central America. Born in San Salvador, and educated at the Colegio Tridentino in Guatemala, Father Delgado, by reason of his abilities and his patriotic fervor, was called upon to play a decisive rôle in the first movements which manifested the desire of the people of Central America to obtain their independence, as

# OBSERVANCE OF CENTENARY OF DEATH OF DELGADO

The Hall of Heroes of the Pan American Union was the scene of an interesting ceremony November 12, 1932, the hundredth anniversary of the death of José Matías Delgado, the Salvadorean patriot and leader of Central American independence, when homage was offered by the Pan American Union and the recently formed Association for Honoring the Liberators of the Nations of America. Following brief addresses delivered by the Minister of Guatemala, Dr. Adrián Recinos, who is vice chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, by Dr. James Brown Scott, president of the association mentioned, and by Dr. Roberto D. Meléndez, special representative of El Salvador on the Governing Board, floral tributes were placed at the bust of Delgado. In the group appear, reading from the left: Doctor Meléndez, Doctor Recinos, and Doctor Scott.





well as in the subsequent activity which culminated in the emancipation of the Provinces, proclaimed on September 15, 1821. After the declaration of independence, Delgado labored to consolidate the results thereof and to prepare the country for republican life. He presided over the first congress of the new-born federation, and to the day of his death dedicated his talents and unceasing efforts to the development and progress of the Central American nation.

History has consecrated the name of Delgado and has gravled it in the Hall of the Liberators of America. His native country, El Salvador, with justice looks upon him as the most eminent of her sons, the man who best exemplifies the civic virtues of his country, and for this reason has placed his bust in the Hall of Heroes of the Pan American Union. Within a few days, on the centenary of his death, the Salvadorean people will again pay homage to this Central American leader.

I therefore have the honor of proposing to the Governing Board of this institution that it pass a resolution to join in the homage which will be rendered to the memory of Doctor Delgado. For this purpose I submit the following to the consideration of the members of the Board:

Whereas, November 12, 1932, will mark the centenary of the death of the illustrious patriot and statesman Dr. José Matías Delgado, native of San Salvador, who led the movement for the independence of Central America; and

Whereas, Doctor Delgado devoted his life and his extraordinary talents to the cause of liberty and of republican ideals, and because of his eminent services and civic virtues merits the admiration, the gratitude, and the veneration of posterity,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

*Resolves:* To hold in remembrance the illustrious Central American leader, Dr. José Matías Delgado, and to join in the tribute which the Republic of El Salvador will pay to his memory on the centenary of his death.

The Special Representative of El Salvador on the Governing Board, Señor Roberto D. Meléndez, responded gracefully to this tribute, unanimously passed by the Board.

#### COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

*Constitutions of Haiti and Paraguay.*—The library has recently received copies of the constitutions now in force in Haiti and Paraguay, which will be distributed free of charge, upon application, as long as the supply lasts.

*National Library of Ecuador.*—The annual statement of the Director of the National Library at Quito, Ecuador, published in the *Informe del Ministro de Educación Pública* has been received in the library. The work of the library was somewhat restricted during the past year, but progress was reported in its general condition. For books for the libraries of the Central University, the Universities of Guayaquil and Cuenca, and the high schools of the country the sum of 12,501 sucres was appropriated.

*Accessions.*—Among the 181 publications added to the library during the past month the following are especially noted:

*Recopilación de decretos-leyes* dictados por el gobierno socialista de la República de Chile (por orden numérico). tomo 1. Santiago, Talleres de San Vicente,

1932. Recopilados y concordados por Hernán Carrasco Silva, abogado; Osvaldo Ceppi Ceppi, Carlos Pulgar Fabres y Fernando Enrique Pérez, estudiantes de derecho.

*Historia social de Chile*, [por] Domingo Amunátegui Solar. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1932. 345 p.

*Floralia montium*, [por] Alvaro A. da Silveira. Bello Horizonte, Imprensa official de Minas Geraes, 1931. v. 2. Notas botánicas, geológicas e geográficas.

*Un orientalista cubano: Francisco Mateo de Acosta y Zenea*, discurso escrito por el académico de número Dr. Juan M. Dihigo y Mestre para la sesión solemne que debió celebrarse el 10 de octubre de 1932 [en la Academia de la historia de Cuba]. La Habana, Imprenta "El Siglo XX," 1932. 113 p. front. (port.) ports., facsim.

*La vida de la Academia de la historia (1931-32)*, memoria leída por el secretario Sr. René Lufriú y Alonso. Informes . . . y concurso a premio del año de 1932. La Habana, Imprenta "El Siglo XX," 1932. 1 p. l., 61 p.

*Geografía general de Costa Rica*, por M. Obregón L. . . tomo I, Geografía física. San José, Imp. Lines, A. Reyes, 1932. 339 p. illus., fold. maps, diagr. (Lecturas geográficas, 3ª. serie.)

*A través de Chile*; guía del viajero, publicación oficial de los Ferrocarriles del Estado. Domingo Oyarzún Moreno, editor autorizado. [Santiago, Imp. Universitaria] 1931. 293 [2] p., incl. illus., maps, tables. fold. tables.

*Escritores de Chile*. II. Siglo XIX. Selección y notas de E. Solar Correa. Santiago de Chile, Imprenta Universitaria [1932], 244 p. 19½ cm.

"*Jai-von*" (novela chilena) por David Rojas González. Valparaíso, Ediciones "Sud-América," 1932. 186 p.

*A tentative bibliography of Peruvian literature*, by Sturgis E. Leavitt. Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University press, 1932. 5 p. l., 37 p.

*The Harkness collection in the Library of Congress*; calendar of Spanish manuscripts concerning Peru, 1531-1651. Washington, U. S. Govt. print. off., 1932. x, 336 p.

Periodicals received for the first time by the library were as follows:

*Boletín de la Biblioteca Nacional*. San Salvador, Imprenta Nacional, 1932. 2d series, no. 4, September, 1932. 38 p. illus. 10 x 7¼ inches. Director: Julio César Escobar; editor: José Gómez Campos.

*Revista del Instituto Nacional* "General Francisco Menéndez"; ciencia, arte, literatura, variedades. San Salvador, Imprenta Nacional, 1932. Vol. II, no. 12, June 1, 1932. 67 p. illus. 9¼ x 7 inches. Monthly. Editor: Prof. Dr. Alberto Rivas Bonilla.

*Boletín Oficial de la Policía*; órgano mensual de la Dirección general del cuerpo. San Salvador, 1932. Vol. 1, no. 1, July, 1932. 34 p. illus. 9¼ x 6½ inches. Monthly.

*Boletín del Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores*. Montevideo, Imprenta Militar, 1932. 2d series, vol. 1, 1st year, vol. 1, July, 1932. 124 p. 9½ x 6½ inches. Monthly. Editor: Virgilio Sampognaro. Office: Montevideo, Uruguay, Calle Soriano, 1223. Reappearance, in compliance with Presidential decree of January 29, 1932, of the "Boletín," which had ceased publication in March 23, 1923.

*Universidad del Cauca*; órgano del movimiento ideológico occidental universitario. Popayán, Cauca, Colombia, Imprenta del Departamento, 1932. Vol. 1, no. 2, September, 1932. 47 p. illus. 9½ x 9½ inches. Monthly. Editor: Antonio García.

*Oro*; órgano del Ministerio de Fomento para la difusión de la minería aurífera. Santiago de Chile, 1932. No 1, August, 1932. 8 p. illus.  $15\frac{1}{4}$  x 11 inches. Semimonthly. Distributed free. Address: Ministerio de Fomento, Santiago de Chile.

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# PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

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## FURTHER MEXICAN CURRENCY AND BANKING REFORMS

The series of reforms in the monetary and banking systems of Mexico inaugurated with the passage of the Monetary Law of July, 1931 (amended on March 9, 1932), and continued with the adoption of the Law Reorganizing the Bank of Mexico, on April 12, 1932 (amended on May 19, 1932), was brought to completion by the passage on June 28, 1932, of the General Law of Credit Institutions, and the adoption, on August 26, 1932, of the Law on Negotiable Instruments and Credit Operations.

This series of laws has completely altered the financial structure of the nation. Without discussing in detail the provisions of the Monetary Law and its amendment or the Law Reorganizing the Bank of Mexico (see BULLETIN for June, 1932), it may be pointed out that the monetary system of Mexico has been changed from that of a nominal gold standard to a "managed" system of currency, which while retaining some of the features of both the gold and silver standards, cannot be said to be on either one of these two systems. The Bank of Mexico, by the law of April 12, 1932, has been reorganized to function primarily as a central bank of issue and rediscount, and its operations as a commercial bank for the public have been abandoned. By this law the bank has powers to regulate the monetary circulation, the interest rate and the foreign exchange rate, carry on rediscount operations arising out of legitimate commercial transactions, centralize the banking reserves of the nation, act as a clearing house for its member banks, and be the fiscal agent and sole depository of the funds of the Federal Government.

The next step in the reform program was the passage of the General Law of Credit Institutions, on June 28, 1932. The principal features of this law are (1) the completion of the process of integrating the entire banking system of the country along the lines set forth in the law reorganizing the Bank of Mexico and the making possible of the operations of credit institutions under the conditions of stability and elasticity demanded by the special necessities of the Republic; and (2) the correction of certain faults and deficiencies in the existing legislation governing credit institutions.

This law sets forth in great detail the regulations governing the organization and functions of all types of credit institutions, including

commercial banks, branches of foreign banks, trust banks, bonded warehouses, stock exchanges, general financial societies, and credit unions. In addition, the law lays down the regulations for the operation of clearing houses and the duties and powers of the National Banking Commission, which is to have the general supervision of the banking situation of the country.

In general, it may be said that the principal purposes of the law were so to reorganize the banking structure of the country as to open the way for banks to invest their funds in a number of different types of credit operations; but in distinction to the old law, each type was to be recognized for what it was, and dealt with accordingly. Thus, rather than attempting to organize the banking system on the basis of separate specialized banking institutions, the law aims to permit specialized functions, and a bank can carry on any or all functions, provided the proper departments are established to segregate them. In addition, the law extends the field of banking operations by defining and regularizing the legal dispositions referring to mortgage bonds and certificates of deposit; by regulating the credit operations of bonded warehouses, stock exchanges, credit unions, etc.; and by affirming the power given to the Bank of Mexico to grant new and diverse types of credit to its associated banks.

One of the most important provisions of the Law of Credit Institutions is that covering trust banks and credit unions. The regulations of the new law aim to provide sources of credit for a large and hitherto unserved portion of the population, forms of credit which, although specified in previous legislation, never reached a stage of practical usefulness. Small tradesmen and merchants, it is believed, will be especially helped by this section of the law.

Supplementing the regulations governing branches of foreign banks contained in the amendments to the Law Reorganizing the Bank of Mexico adopted on May 19, 1932, the General Law of Credit Institutions provides that operations by branches of such banks must be guaranteed by the reserves of the parent bank as well as those of the local institution, and such branches must submit themselves to Mexican laws and to Mexican courts in all business carried on within the Republic.

The provisions amplifying the powers of the National Banking Commission contained in the General Law of Credit Institutions are expected to have a most important effect on the future banking situation in Mexico. The Commission is now charged, among other functions, with the duty of determining the state of solvency of banks and of taking adequate measures to prevent or lessen the consequences of liquidation. Subject to the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, the Commission will also have the right to decide the amount

of reserves which banks at any time will be required to hold against deposits.

On August 26, 1932, there was passed by the Mexican Congress the Law of Negotiable Instruments and Credit Operations, which was the final step in the general financial reorganization plan mentioned above. This law was primarily designed to provide certain necessary juridical measures which would bring various dispositions of the Commercial Code of Mexico in line with the measures adopted for the reorganization of the credit structure of the nation, and to provide certain necessary legislation which heretofore had not existed in the Commercial Code, in order that the credit instruments set up might be utilized to the greatest advantage.

There are three principal sections to this law. Section I classifies negotiable instruments and credit operations as commercial acts to be governed first by the provisions of this law, and then by general mercantile legislation, by banking or commercial custom, or by the general law of the country, in the order named, one applying if the preceding contains no rule governing the matter under consideration. Section II regulates the issuance, indorsement, acceptance, payment, etc., of negotiable instruments such as bills of exchange, promissory notes, and checks. Section III regulates credit operations such as dealings in futures, bank deposits, bank deposits of securities, deposits of merchandise in general warehouses, credit discounts, current accounts, letters of credit, extensions of credit, credits for raw materials and farm improvements, pledges, trusts, bonds, and certificates of deposit.

With the completion of the basic legislative program for the reorganization of the national financial structure, the Federal Government shortly thereafter began to adopt measures whereby the laws enacted might begin to have practical effect. The first of these measures was a decree prohibiting the importation into Mexico of all foreign money not gold. The import of Mexican money not gold was also prohibited, with the exception of notes of the Bank of Mexico. Other provisions of the decree provided that foreign money, for exchange purposes only, might be imported up to a value of 3,000 Mexican pesos, and repatriated Mexicans might bring into the country up to 50 pesos of Mexican money of any kind. There were other provisions in the decree, but it was seen that the primary object was to allow the Government, through a control of gold movements, to build up a gold reserve, while at the same time placing no direct restrictions on the export of any money, national or foreign. The creation of a gold reserve by the Federal Government was also seen as the first step in a program to bring about a return to the gold standard.

Following the policy intimated in the above decree, the Secretary of the Treasury announced on September 23, 1932, that the Federal

Government had authorized the Treasury to purchase gold of national production. The funds for such purchases were to be derived from the Government's seignorage profits from the silver minting authorized in the law of March 9, 1932 (amendment to the Monetary Law), except that amount used to back the notes issued by the Bank of Mexico. The gold so acquired by the Government was to be placed in a special fund in the Bank of Mexico, in which would be accumulated a gold reserve which would eventually permit Mexico to return to the gold standard.

H. G. S.

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## THE SIXTH REFRIGERATION CONGRESS AND THE ARGENTINE MEAT INDUSTRY

With the attendance of 72 delegates representing 28 countries, 7 of which were American Republics, the Sixth International Refrigeration Congress met at Buenos Aires from August 28 to September 4, 1932, under the auspices of the Government of Argentina. The inaugural ceremonies were held in the Cervantes Theater; addresses of welcome were delivered by Dr. Rómulo S. Naón, mayor of the city of Buenos Aires, and by Dr. Antonio de Tomaso, Argentine Minister of Agriculture.

It will be remembered that the First International Refrigeration Congress was held in Paris in 1908, the International Refrigeration Association being created as a result of that meeting. Vienna, Chicago, and London, in 1910, 1913, and 1924, respectively, were the seats of the second, third, and fourth congresses. In June, 1920, 44 countries, dominions, and colonies signed at Paris a convention which converted the association established by the first congress into the International Refrigeration Institute to function under the patronage of the French Government. Buenos Aires was designated as the seat of the sixth congress during the sessions of the fifth, held in Rome in 1928.

The Sixth Congress elected the following officers: President, Dr. Horacio N. Bruzone, president of the Argentine Rural Society; vice presidents, Dr. Jorge H. Marengo, Under Secretary of Agriculture, and Señor Miguel F. Casares; general secretaries, Dr. Carlos A. Erro and Dr. H. H. Mooy.

Over 200 papers, covering practically all the scientific and economic phases of refrigeration, were presented at the meeting. The discussions in the various commissions into which the work of the conference was divided were of great interest, since all the delegations were composed of technical experts in the field of refrigeration or men directly interested in the refrigeration industry. Of the delegations which

attended the Congress that representing the United States was the largest.

The discussions concerning "quick-freezing" methods and machinery were of special interest. The exportation from Argentina to Great Britain of meat cuts prepared by this process as a future possibility aroused considerable interest and discussion among the Argentine delegates and in the Buenos Aires press. During the course of the Congress, Mr. Gardner Poole, president of the American Institute of Refrigeration, and chairman of the American delegation, gave a demonstration of the Birdseye quick-freezing system in one of the buildings of the Ministry of Agriculture. This exhibition, which was illustrated by several reels of motion-picture films, showed the operation of the Birdseye system in its application to the quick freezing of fish, meats, fruits, and vegetables, and the harvesting, shelling, cleaning, grading, and freezing of green peas in northern New York. Samples of meat cuts, fish, mushrooms, spinach, and red raspberries frozen by this process in the United States were exhibited and a cut of Argentine beef, provided by the Ministry of Agriculture, was frozen before the delegates within 20 minutes on a small portable model of the Birdseye machine.

Two resolutions were adopted by the Congress with reference to the quick-freezing process, recommending that cuts of meat and other edible parts quickly frozen in packages under an official seal permitting their identification and coming from countries which offer sanitary guarantees should enjoy the same treatment as those frozen by the ordinary method and declaring that, inasmuch as the quick-freezing method makes no change in the cell tissues, such method of preservation should be considered hygienic. The Congress also recommended that studies with respect to quick-freezing methods with special reference to the preservation of food products should be encouraged as much as possible in the various countries.

An international refrigeration exposition was organized under the auspices of the Argentine national executive committee of the Congress. This was officially opened on September 4 in conjunction with the International Livestock Show held at the grounds of the Argentine Rural Society in Palermo. The latest refrigeration machinery and apparatus were shown at this exposition and the most modern methods of storing and transporting food products illustrated.

Following the conclusion of the Congress, the official delegates made a tour of inspection to some of the principal meat-packing plants and visited some of the large cattle ranches near Buenos Aires. Previous to this visit the delegates to the Congress had been shown motion pictures illustrating the Argentine livestock industry and particularly the rigid method of veterinary inspection maintained by the Argentine Government on livestock slaughtered for export.



During the sessions of the Congress a bronze plaque was unveiled in Buenos Aires in the presence of the delegates as a tribute to the memory of Charles Tellier, the French engineer known as the "Father of Artificial Refrigeration," whose pioneer work in this field made possible the extensive development of the Argentine livestock industry.

Those who have followed the development of refrigeration will probably remember that what is said to have been the first overseas shipment of meat under artificial refrigeration left France for Argentina in 1876. Charles Tellier had for a number of years experimented with the production of artificial cold by means of methylic ether and ammonia. Several Argentine and Uruguayan citizens, realizing the possibilities of refrigeration in the development of the livestock industry of the River Plate countries, had been in close touch with the French scientist and had given him aid and advice. To prove definitely the feasibility of transporting meats over long distances, Tellier acquired a small vessel and installed on it a refrigerating system. In September, 1876, with a small trial shipment of beef, mutton, pork, and poultry, he set off on the long journey to Buenos Aires, arriving in the River Plate estuary on Christmas of the same year after a difficult voyage of 105 days.

The trip was a success. The meats arrived in good condition, despite the simplicity of the refrigerating system, and were consumed by the guests invited to various dinners served on board. The Argentine press, commenting upon the arrival of *El Frigorífico*, as Tellier's vessel was named, prophesied that the newly arrived invention would have a decisive influence upon the future of the Republic.

Artificial refrigeration has been, as predicted, one of the most important factors in the development of the meat industry of the country, which in turn is one of the most important phases of progress in Argentina. Shortly after the first shipment of frozen meat from Argentina in 1877 the construction of the first *frigorífico*, or packing plant, in South America was begun by The River Plate Fresh Meat Co. (Ltd.) at the town of Campana. The plant was finished and began to ship frozen mutton in 1883. To-day there are 22 such establishments. They can process 28,010 heads of cattle, 67,510 sheep, and 8,030 hogs in an 8-hour day, and the capacity of their chilling and freezing chambers and cold-storage deposits is 585,813 and 182,669 cubic meters, respectively. The value of their fixed assets (land, buildings, machinery, etc.) is estimated at 250,000,000 paper pesos and their subscribed and paid-in capital, not including that of the Matadero Frigorífico Municipal, which is owned by the city of Buenos Aires, amounts to 193,855,528 pesos. The capital of 9 of the plants is Argentine, 8 are owned by American corporations, and 5 by British companies.

An index of the important economic relation between these establishments and the livestock industry is the amount which they spend annually for the purchase of stock. In 1931 the 15 *frigoríficos* which were in operation during the year bought stock to the amount of 347,412,566 paper pesos, as follows:

	Heads	Paper pesos
Cattle.....	2,309,385	288,360,073.99
Sheep.....	5,388,326	45,240,980.65
Swine.....	392,428	13,811,512.17
Total.....	8,090,139	347,412,566.81

Besides these large establishments there are 53 smaller plants in Argentina for the preparation of meat products; all of these have refrigeration systems. Thirty-six of them are located in Buenos Aires. The total capacity of their refrigeration chambers is 19,322 cubic meters. In the port of Buenos Aires there is also a large deposit with 21 chambers and a total capacity of 5,500 cubic meters for the storage of all sorts of perishable products for export or domestic consumption. It is owned by the Government but operated by a private concern.

Although the *frigoríficos* near Buenos Aires supply the capital with 46 per cent of the beef it consumes, 39 per cent of the mutton, and 17 per cent of the pork, the bulk of their output and of that of the smaller plants is exported, their principal market being the United Kingdom. The following table shows the exports of meats and other cold-storage products from Argentina during the years 1930 and 1931:

Products	1930		1931	
	Metric tons	Gold pesos	Metric tons	Gold pesos
Frozen beef.....	98,748	17,712,790	83,681	13,899,180
Chilled beef.....	345,525	70,914,068	352,227	67,535,512
Frozen mutton.....	80,360	14,408,556	83,043	13,859,328
Salted pork and beef.....	3,866	967,969	3,509	886,529
Frozen pork.....	4,830	1,114,492	5,278	1,172,348
Hams.....	19	11,447	78	47,329
Smoked tongues.....	423	312,342	427	437,618
Frozen sausage.....	27,886	4,064,477	27,925	3,769,525
Bacon.....	14	6,580	40	10,332
Animal oil.....	793	160,986	1,203	198,878
Soup stock.....	1,746	768,495	1,871	763,779
Preserved pork.....	693	200,133	876	250,248
Other preserved meats.....	62,420	16,651,321	55,078	13,545,451
Stearin.....	5,449	779,328	5,058	683,930
Meat extract.....	1,682	2,549,960	1,197	1,812,913
Meat flour.....	9,336	739,201	10,423	628,054
Lard.....	112	20,101	130	25,748

Products	1930		1931	
	Metric tons	Gold pesos	Metric tons	Gold pesos
Butter.....	23, 204	13, 367, 330	23, 209	13, 269, 760
Margarin and palmitin.....	791	144, 344	726	109, 499
Rendered tallow and grease.....	50, 847	7, 428, 935	60, 752	6, 631, 661
Lard scrap.....	5, 040	184, 441	3, 061	124, 939
Salted casings.....	8, 714	2, 114, 438	7, 475	1, 872, 491
Dried casings.....	125	100, 540	116	100, 117
Frozen grease.....	139	23, 958	152	19, 546
Eggs.....	1 968, 820	193, 764	1 2, 606, 107	419, 267
Fresh fruits.....	5, 292	375, 265	7, 805	423, 259
Frozen poultry.....	1, 117	353, 983	2, 577	701, 531
Cream.....	14	8, 979	136	66, 192
Jerked beef.....	155	40, 409	25	5, 675
Cheese.....	337	124, 696	479	177, 626
	739, 677	155, 843, 328	738, 557	143, 438, 265

<sup>1</sup> Dozens.

The effect of artificial refrigeration upon the livestock industry of Argentina has been one of gradual improvement of the breeds to satisfy the exacting requirements of the export market. In 1908, out of 29,116,625 heads of cattle, 55 per cent were purebred or purebred on one side, and 45 per cent native. Six years later the pure and mixed breeds had increased to 64 per cent, and in 1930, out of a total of 32,211,855 heads, 71 per cent were purebred or purebred on one side and only 29 per cent native. The larger percentage of purebred stock is due almost entirely to the increase in the number of Shorthorn cattle, which in 1930 represented 56.2 of the total number of heads, as compared with 45.5 per cent in 1914. The greater number of Shorthorns is explained by the fact that the meat of this breed is preferred in England, the traditional market for Argentine beef, and by the shorter time which it takes a Shorthorn to obtain its maximum development.

The same tendency toward the improvement of stock is noted in the sheep of the country. According to the 1930 census, out of a total of 44,413,221 sheep 90.5 per cent were purebred or purebred on one side and only 9.5 of native breeds, as compared with 79.3 and 20.7 per cent in 1914, respectively. The improvement is particularly noticeable in those breeds which produce good-quality meat as well as wool. In 1914, out of a total of 43,225,452 sheep, 15.2 per cent were of the Merino breed; in 1930 the percentage of sheep of this breed was 32.3. Similarly the percentage of the Romney Marsh sheep has increased from 6.3 per cent in 1914 to 17 per cent in 1930.

The breeding of hogs has also shown considerable improvement (see October, 1932, issue of the BULLETIN, p. 725), especially with reference to those breeds which produce the lean meats for which the

British market has shown a preference. The number of hogs of pure breed, or purebred on one side, represented 44.4 per cent of the total number of hogs in the country in 1908; 56 per cent in 1914; and 62.5 per cent in 1930. Hogs of the Duroc Jersey breed, which in 1914 accounted for 5.7 per cent of the total number of hogs in the country, in 1930 accounted for 28.5 per cent. Those of the Poland China breed increased from 4.3 per cent in 1914 to 13.3 per cent in 1930. The increase in the number of hogs of these two breeds coincides with the beginning and the development of the exportation of frozen pork from Argentina.

As may be seen, Argentina has made great progress in the application of refrigeration to her export trade in meats. There is still open a great field in the use of refrigeration in the domestic commerce of the country. Argentina is said to lead the world in the consumption of meat, with a yearly average of 264 pounds per capita. Recent statistics prepared by the Ministry of Agriculture show that on June 30, 1932, there were 33 private and 351 municipal abattoirs in the interior of the Republic which did not have refrigeration systems. These abattoirs have sufficient daily capacity to slaughter 164 and 10,505 heads, respectively. Refrigeration is only beginning to be applied to the fishing and fruit industry, and the number of refrigerated trucks and railway cars is still small.—G. A. S.



## NOTE ON SOME OF THE JEWELS CONTAINED IN TOMB 7 AT MONTE ALBAN

At the end of Miss Beatrice Newhall's article on "The Treasure of Monte Alban" published in the June, 1932, number of the *BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION*, she comments on the contents of the translation of my communication to the Congress of Americanists held in Hamburg and the paper I read in March at the meeting of the National Academy of Sciences in Mexico City.

Her ingenious remarks that "naturally enough the 'symbol' of Cuauhtemoc, the last native ruler of Mexico, was an eagle, for the Aztec word for eagle was 'Cuauhtli,'" and that "the descending eagle might be taken to signify the fallen fortunes of the unfortunate Aztec" . . . reveal her unconsciousness of the fact that the Ancient Mexicans employed a system of ikonomatic writing in which, as in a rebus, objects were pictured for their phonetic value. This explains why she did not grasp the main point of my "Contribution to a solution of the problem of the Monte Alban Tomb 7," which I now proceed to present to the readers of the *BULLETIN*.

The name of Cuauhtemoc, which literally means "the descending eagle" and is composed of the Aztec words *Cuauhtli*=eagle and *Temo*=descending or swooping down, seems particularly appropriate to the young prince who displayed such heroism and energy in his desperate resistance to the Spaniards.

In Mexican MSS., as, for instance, in the examples reproduced from the Aubin MS. and the Mapa de Tepechpan in Figure 1, Cuauhtemoc's name is expressed by a swooping eagle with or without the accompaniment of footprints pointing downwards (to express the verb

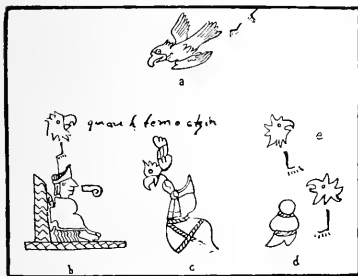


FIGURE 1.—CUAUHTEMOC'S NAME

In Mexican picture writings, the name of the last Aztec Emperor is recorded in these various manners.



FIGURE 2.—THE EMPEROR  
CUAUHTEMOC

From Espinosa's Historia.

temo=descending) or, more cursorily, by an eagle's head combined with a single footprint.

Being familiar with the names of Cuauhtemoc as recorded in Mexican documents, I was greatly impressed, on seeing the Monte Alban jewels for the first time, by the fact that two jewels of the most exquisite workmanship display the descending eagle, Cuauhtemoc's hieroglyph, and that, moreover, the first, a gold ring, is in the characteristic form of the copilli or high diadem worn by the Mexican kings. (See fig. 2.) This ring, of which five counterparts in silver were also found in tomb 7, is reproduced in Figure 3<sup>a</sup>.

The second jewel that arrested my attention was the exquisitely wrought gold pendant, also cast in a single piece, representing a descending eagle in a closed circle (fig. 3<sup>b</sup>.)

In both cases the exact counterparts of the symbols hanging from the eagle's beak can be seen in Mexican MSS. (for instance in the Magliabecchi MS. on the "mantas" worn in festivals by the lords), and the same is the case with the signs on other jewels and the calendar signs carved on bone, which exhibit all the characteristics of Mexican conventional art.

These facts led me to investigate the possibility that the jewels and carved bones found in what had been an abandoned, plundered Zapotec tomb at Monte Alban might be those of Cuauhtemoc and the other Mexican lords who were taken as hostages by Cortés on

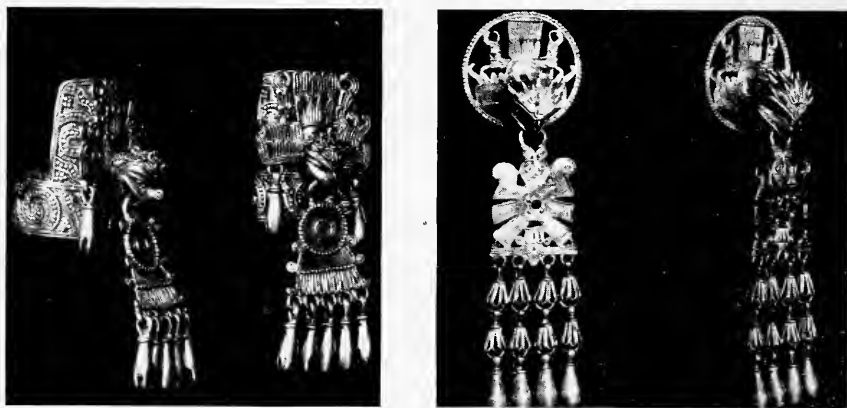


FIGURE 3.—JEWELS FROM TOMB 7 AT MONTE ALBÁN

(a) Gold ring in shape of an Aztec crown, with Cuauhtemoc's hieroglyph. (b) Gold pendant with Cuauhtemoc's hieroglyph.

his expedition to "Higueras" in 1524 and are known never to have returned to Mexico.

An illustrated paper, containing the results of my further study of the question, will soon appear in the *Boletín de la Sociedad Mexicana de Geografía y Estadística*.

It will be seen, by the foregoing details, that my suggestion that the jewels in question might have pertained to Cuauhtemoc was based on more substantial evidence than Miss Newhall realized, which nowise detracts from the merit of her article.

I regret that, as she was dealing with an unfamiliar subject, this talented young writer did not submit these comments to me for revision before publishing them and thus obviated the necessity for the publication of this note.—ZELIA NUTTALL.

## NECROLOGY

COLOMBIA recently mourned the death of one of her distinguished journalists and statesmen, Dr. Guillermo Camacho Carrizosa, who died suddenly at Cachipay on September 3, 1932. Born at Bogota in 1876, he entered public life at an early age and on various occasions was a member of the municipal council of Bogota, the departmental assembly of Cundinamarca, and the upper and lower houses of the National Congress. In 1909 he was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs and some years later represented his country in France, Italy, and Spain as Minister Plenipotentiary. Upon his return to Colombia he served for some years as Governor of Cundinamarca. At the time of his death he was a member of the advisory board of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

CHILE lost one of her prominent public men by the demise last July of Don Eliodoro Yáñez Ponce de León. Born in Santiago on May 6, 1860, he was educated at the National Institute and the University of Chile, where he finished his law studies in 1883. Señor Yáñez entered public life in 1893 through his election to the Chamber of Deputies, and after many years of service as a legislator was elected president of the senate in 1924. As the founder of *La Nación* and *El Correo de Valdivia* Señor Yáñez also occupied a prominent place in Chilean journalism.

Admiral Guillermo Soubllette, one of the most prominent figures in the Chilean Navy, died on August 26, 1932.

The death of Gen. Leonidas Plaza Gutiérrez, twice President of ECUADOR, has been deeply felt throughout his native country. When he passed away on September 17, 1932, General Plaza was 66 years old. He was first elected to the Presidency in 1901 on a reform platform; in 1912 he was elected for the 4-year term ending in 1916. On his death the Government of Ecuador, in recognition of the many services which he had rendered his country, decreed three days of mourning throughout the Republic.

On October 1, 1932, Dr. Agustín T. Whilar, one of the foremost educators in PERU, died at Lima at the age of 75. Born in Nicaragua, he went to Peru at an early age. There he studied at the University of San Marcos and from the date of his graduation devoted all his

energy and enthusiasm to the promotion of education in his adopted country. He was the educator of several generations, the founder of the Colegio Peruano de Lima and the Escuela Normal de Preceptores, and the author of numerous textbooks and a number of important works on pedagogical methods.

Don Antonio Bachini, who for many years played a prominent part in the political life of URUGUAY, died at Montevideo on September 11, 1932. Born in the town of Dolores in 1860, at the age of 15 Señor Bachini found himself owner, editor, printer, and distributor of a provincial newspaper when its former owner was forced to emigrate for political reasons. The manner in which he acquitted himself in this undertaking gave him his start as a reporter on one of the Montevideo dailies. His activities during his long years of public life were not restricted, however, to newspaper work. He served two terms in the Chamber of Deputies, was Minister of Foreign Affairs from 1907 to 1910, and in 1923 was appointed Uruguayan Minister to Portugal. Later he served his country in the same capacity in Germany and England and shortly before his death had been appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to Brazil.















